The Nation

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The Week

The special Congressional election in the Third District of Maine was fought over with peculiar intensity. It was the first test of party strength, on traditionally debatable fighting-ground, since Roosevelt finished his meteoric campaign, since the Republican party received the stunning blow of being placed third in the popular vote of the nation, since the beginning of President Wilson's Administration, and especially since the absolute identification of the Democratic party with a sharp reduction of the tariff, now on the eve of going into effect. The Republican candidate has been elected by a plurality of about five hundred, being a little less than the Republican plurality in the Congressional election of last November; but as the Progressives had no candidate in that election, this must be accounted a distinct gain for the Republicans. The Progressives polled a vote of only about 6,500, as against 13,236 for Roosevelt last year; and this in spite of a most strenuous campaign on their part—an outcome that falls in line with a long series of indications all over the country of the want of staying power in the Progressive ranks. As for the relation of the vote to President Wilson and the Democratic tariff policy, inasmuch as the number of voters in this Maine district who cast their ballots for the Democratic candidate for Congress on Monday was about 14,600, while the total number of votes cast for Wilson for President was 14,692, it is evidently impossible—in spite of the Democrats' disappointment in not carrying the district—to find in the result any trustworthy sign of that anti-tariff-reform reaction upon which the Republicans are counting.

"Foreign books were returned to the free list as originally provided in the House." Thus ran a brief but important item in the Washington dispatches reporting Monday's happenings in the Senate. By foreign books is meant, of course, books in foreign languages. The proposal to put a tariff on them led to the most vigorous protests on all sides, for it was the least defensible of all taxes—a tax on learning. Fortunately, those protests were so successful, although made at the last moment, that no one can doubt, hereafter, that it pays to oppose unyieldingly a deliberately planned injustice. With reason triumphing in this case, there is no ground why anybody should despair of yet getting the similarly incomprehensible tax on art removed when the conferrees of the two houses meet. We again urge every one interested to make it clear to Mr. Underwood how widespread is the feeling of disgust at so backward and anti-democratic a proposal.

The House of Representatives did the expected thing in passing the Hetch-Hetchy bill. The Committee on Public Lands had unanimously approved the scheme, and had submitted a report piling up all the pleas that could possibly be made in its favor, while giving extremely scant attention to the protests of those who are earnestly opposing the project as one that will destroy the distinctive character of a wonderful national park. Upon many readers of this report, it will doubtless make the impression of having shown that the possession of the Hetch-Hetchy water supply is indispensable to the welfare of San Francisco. This, however, is by no means the fact. Not only does the report fail to *show* that the Hetch-Hetchy supply is indispensable; it does not even *assert* that such is the case. All that is contended, in the repeated references made to the matter throughout the report, is that the Hetch-Hetchy supply is the most accessible or the most economical source available to San Francisco; and very little indication is even given of the degree of this advantage. We have no doubt that a large part of the favorable vote was due to the false impression, conveyed not by the specific statements of fact, but by the tone and temper of the report, that the San Franciscans have no other practical recourse.

Mr. Taft has the courage of his convictions on the subject of the judiciary. So far from assuming that "good Lord, good devil" attitude which some persons, even though they dislike the idea of recall of judges, adopt towards that scheme, he referred to it, in his American Bar Association address, as "the preposterous innovation of judicial recall." And the reasons for its preposterousness were clearly indicated in the address, both directly and by implication. Mr. Taft urged, what it seems impossible that any person who has thought seriously on the subject can doubt, that not subjection to removal by an irresponsible majority of voters, but independence of passing clamors and assurance of permanent tenure are needed to raise the quality of the administration of justice by American judges. That accessibility to some process less difficult than that of impeachment may be desirable, Mr. Taft does not deny; but he refers with fully justified scorn to the loose and ignorant identification of the recall nostrum, by some of its advocates, with the method of removal "by joint resolution of the House and Senate, in analogy to the method of removing judges in England through an address of both houses to the king." This method, which has long existed in some of our States, manifestly provides, as the ex-President says, an opportunity for "full defence, hearing, and argument." And he might have added, what is no less important, that the vote for removal is the recorded action of a small and definite number of conspicuous men, whereas in the proposed recall by popular vote the odium of an unjust vote cannot be brought home to any of the thousands who deposit their ballot in secrecy against a judge who may have incurred, whether through merit or through fault, the immediate dislike of a majority.

We cannot sympathize with the position of Secretary Daniels in refusing to accept the resignations of naval officers who wish to return to civil life, or to grant the applications of those who wish to go on the retired list voluntarily. Mr. Daniels is of the opinion that an officer educated for the navy at Government expense has no right to resign when he can get a better opportunity in civil life. But the contrary has been the policy of the Navy Department since the beginning of this Government, with the exception of war-

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time. It has always been felt that these resignations were of benefit to the whole service by accelerating the flow of promotion, and by increasing the number of trained officers available in war time. It was conclusively shown during the war with Spain that officers who had resigned were only too willing to volunteer for war service, unless prevented by reasons of health. They have always felt themselves under a moral obligation to rejoin the navy in a national emergency. At this very moment, the House Naval Committee is considering testimony with a view to relieving the stagnation in promotion now existing in the navy's personnel. Yet the Secretary of the Navy is deliberately increasing that stagnation by refusing to permit men to resign or to retire voluntarily.

In the matter of permitting officers of thirty and forty years' service to retire, Secretary Garrison has taken with the army the same rigid position. The *Nation* has always been opposed to the unnecessary increase of the retired list, repeatedly calling attention, during the Spanish and Philippine war, to an abuse which Congress finally stopped—the loading up of the retired list with officers who merely served for a day or two as brigadier-generals. It has also urged that there be stricter physical examinations, on entrance into the service, to prevent the breaking down of young officers. But we cannot feel that there would be any grave danger to the Treasury of the United States, or to the services themselves, if Secretary Garrison and Secretary Daniels should permit every officer above the rank of major or commander to retire who so desired. There were twelve such army retirements in 1910, 24 in 1911, 27 in 1912, and there have been only 12 thus far in 1913. Moreover, the officer who wants to get out of the service, or is unhappy because he cannot retire, is not apt to add to the contentment of his comrades, or to be himself at the high-water mark of efficiency.

The Army-Navy football game at the Polo Grounds in November will bring to New York a welcome touch of color. For a city of its size, New York has very little of the brave pageantry of gold lace and epaulets. Even the fraternal, benevolent, and protective orders do not parade as they used to do. Candor compels one to say that the Polo Grounds, in their dingy surroundings of railway trestles and factory chimneys, are not the ideal setting for the brilliant display that has made Franklin Field in late November a very fair approach to the jousting places of European knighthood in its flower. But the poetry of color and motion is one thing, and the increased receipts available at the Polo Grounds is another. It may very well be that the Army-Navy game will set a fashion. The people of New York have had no chance to see first-class football since the big college teams ceased dropping in on Columbia's, which means that the people of this city have been deprived of the most stirring of all athletic spectacles.

Chicago taxpayers are having an opportunity of comparing the cost of administration under the merit system with that under the spoils system. For two years the county offices were filled by appointment following examination. Then, a few months ago, the State Supreme Court declared the County Civil Service law unconstitutional because of the careless failure of the Legislature to print amendments to the bill. The consequence was to reopen these places to the politicians. Now the County Civil Service Commission estimates that an annual saving of more than a million dollars would be possible by the restoration of civil service rules. Heads of departments managed in some instances to retain a few positions for their personal disposal, and it was absolutely necessary to keep some of the old employees, but "there was an agreement that the great bulk of the county positions should be pooled in the hands of the County Committee." This Committee proceeded to allot the places to party leaders, according to the vote polled in their districts. Thirty of the resulting appointees are "pluralists," being on the pay-rolls of the State, city, and park districts. Nine of these are members of the Legislature! Not only is incompetence the rule in offices so filled, but the only limit to the number of employees "needed" is the tax limit.

The familiar habit of staying at home and letting somebody else do the voting was conspicuous in an election in San Francisco the other day, in which 51,000 ballots were cast in favor of a bond issue of $3,500,000 for the extension of the municipal railway system, and 13,000 were cast against it. The total vote was less than half of the registration. Yet the issue cannot be called an unimportant one. Nor were the voters without a basis for deciding it. For a year the city has operated a short stretch of road. Had it been sufficiently successful with it to be entrusted with more? All that the election settled was that a large majority of a considerable minority of the voters thought that it had. To the country at large this experiment in municipal ownership will be of great interest, owing to its scale. It is to be tried, too, under conditions which ought to make it comparatively easy for the citizens to judge of its success, for the city will be a competitor with the present private system. The duplication of tracks involved is unfortunate, but is an incident in the failure of the city and the company to effect an agreement regarding extension of the latter's franchises.

Among the sweet uses found in the agricultural adversity of Kansas is the impulse it has given to the employment of county advisers. This new profession, in the words of a Topeka official, offers a golden opportunity to country lads who now "go in for business and professional clerkships at pay that rarely reaches an appreciable figure." Five Illinois counties, with the assistance of Chicago firms, have already hired graduates in agriculture to give their farmers counsel in planting, reaping, and maintaining the fertility of their land. For $3,000 they can have a soil analyst and crop and stock expert who, when duties crowd upon him, commands the aid of the whole State University corps. It seems likely that in time only the number of counties will limit the profession. As one way of making the agricultural college come to the people, and overcoming the handicap under which untrained farmers labor, the innovation is said to appeal even to those who think illiberally of higher education. In Illinois, to see your schooled neighbor getting ahead of you; in Kansas, to watch the inroads of the drought—is a potent argument for procuring the public services of a "demonstrator" of advanced farming ideas.

The acclamation of Harry K. Thaw

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by the people of Sherbrooke may be explained more precisely than by saying that human nature is queer. The latest Thaw episode shows that human nature is amazingly persistent. After several thousand years of civilization the primitive instincts reassert themselves. There is the primitive hostility to law, and there is the primitive hostility to fact. The crowd pays respect to law in the abstract, but is inclined to make an exception of every specific violation of the law. The crowd acknowledges the authority of fact in the abstract, but, in the specific instance, is too often tempted to assert that what is so is really not so. The Tichborne claimant was proved to be an impostor; therefore he was the rightful heir. Dr. Cook has been shown to be a liar; therefore a good many people shake their heads profoundly and assert that there must be something behind it all, the apparent conclusion being that behind Cook the liar is Cook the man who told the truth. Harry K. Thaw killed Stanford White; but he is not a murderer. He has been an inmate of a lunatic asylum; therefore he is not insane. He is a fugitive from justice; therefore he ought not to be handed back into custody. To an extraordinary extent human nature rejects the work of human progress. We have built up society and retain the anti-social habits. We have celebrated the triumph of science and retain the superstitious frame of mind which rejects evidence and fact.

Little by little they are taking the schoolboy's long vacation from him. The time when the schoolhouse and yard were let severely alone for three full months, except for occasional visits from the conscientious janitor, has passed away in many communities, and is rapidly passing in most of the rest. If this development adds a new touch of bitterness to the coming of the fateful month of September, the same stoicism that has stood the pupil in good stead heretofore must sustain him still. In many instances, however, the work that is invading his former period of leisure has a novelty that cannot fail to commend it. There is agriculture, for example. Even boys and girls with a keen appreciation of unmortgaged time will be reluctant to hand over to the tender mercies of weeds and parasites the acre of corn and potatoes which they have planted and tended in accordance with the latest principles of scientific farming. To stiffen this interest, an inspector will appear at intervals during the summer, with words of praise or censure for the way in which the crop has been looked after.

In an article in the London *Economist*, entitled "The Revival of the Piano Trade," President Wilson might find interesting confirmation of his favorite view on the wholesomeness of vigorous competition. It appears that some fifteen or twenty years ago British makers of pianos allowed themselves to be completely outdistanced by their German competitors. The Germans had been quicker than the British in adopting a number of improvements in piano construction, "with the natural result," says the *Economist*, "that they steadily gained ground while we lost it, and even our home market ultimately was flooded with the German article." In this country, under the good old protectionist rule which we are now shaking off, a flood of this nature would, as a matter of course, have called for the building up of a higher tariff dike to keep it out; but in free-trade England no such thing was possible. Well, what happened? Was the British piano industry ruined? Not at all. The pessimists who thought it would be, says the *Economist*, "reasoned without an adequate knowledge of the grit and doggedness which characterizes the captains of most British industries." The British piano-makers had a hard task in making head against the prestige which, through their want of quickness, they had allowed the Germans to obtain; but they stuck to the job and have now fully turned the tide. They have stopped the German inroad on the home market, and have regained in large measure their old place in foreign markets. The number of foreign pianos imported is less now than it was eight years ago, while the number of British pianos exported has more than doubled in the same time. The affair is not one of world-shaking importance, but it is an excellent object-lesson on the basic elements of wholesome economic policy.

Since Theodor Herzl first brought forward the idea of a Jewish autonomous state in Palestine under Turkish suzerainty, the Zionist movement has grown in strength, but the drift has been steadily away from Herzl's ambitious plan. The overthrow of Abdul Hamid II and the advent of the Young Turks were serious checks to Zionist aspirations. The new régime at Constantinople aimed at bringing the various provinces of the Turkish Empire into closer coordination. A self-governing Jewish state in Palestine was necessarily at variance with the new ideas of Turkish nationalism. The recent crushing defeat of the Turks raises an additional obstacle. With five-sixths of its European possessions lost, the Porte is less likely than ever to consent to a scheme which would threaten the dismemberment of its territory in Asia. The leaders of the Zionist movement have recognized the logic of facts. The political phase of the movement has fallen into the background, and greater stress has been laid upon the economic conquest of Palestine through the establishment of a large Jewish agricultural population. The break with the original idea of Zionism is marked at the congress meeting by the formal secession of Max Nordau, the foremost supporter of Theodor Herzl's views.

Either the loyalty and discipline of the Japanese people have been exaggerated or else the population of Tokio is not typical of Japan. The frequent recurrence of rioting in the Mikado's capital certainly betrays no inclination on the part of a considerable number of his subjects to accept without protest whatever governmental policy is imposed upon them in the Mikado's name. It is a changing Japan, with Parliament defying the Elder Statesmen and women haranguing the crowds. It is a Japan experiencing the growing pains of a mere nation that is becoming a Power. The country is torn between imperialistic dreams and a crying need for peace and retrenchment. Those intimately acquainted with present conditions in Japan declare that we have no conception of how crushing is the burden of taxation upon the people, and how fierce is the struggle for economic existence. Poverty brings discontent, and the people of Tokio riot. That they should be rioting in favor of a stronger foreign policy, more soldiers, more battleships, in other words, more poverty, is not an unknown phase of crowd psychology.

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THE LOPSIDED INCOME TAX.

Senator Root was in a strong position to make his speech in the Senate last week, in protest against excessive discrimination in the levying of the income tax. Just where he would draw the line, he did not say; like many of Mr. Root's utterances, his speech dealt with the broad principles of the question rather than with details. And he was in a strong position to say what he did, first because he had firmly advocated the approval of the income-tax amendment by the State of New York, and secondly because he admits the propriety of a graded tax. There are objections to a Federal income tax, and there are objections to a graded income tax; but in the face of these objections, Mr. Root, like many others, is convinced that the argument in favor of these things outweighs the argument against them. He falls back, as thoughtful men in general fall back, upon the hope that the representatives of the people will exercise their powers in these matters with sobriety, and in a spirit of fairness and good will.

The bill as originally reported exempted all incomes up to $4,000. The modifications since made in this regard have not altered the character of this exemption, indeed they have rather intensified it; for the $3,000 limit applies only to men without wife or child, while a married man with two children has an exemption of $5,000. The effect of an exemption of this sort is to give to all but a small fraction of the people of the country the feeling that their only personal interest in the tax is that of getting its benefits while bearing no share in its burdens. That this is a most undesirable condition, in a democratic republic, ought to require no insistence. With the exception of those who have a hard struggle for the necessities of bare subsistence, every citizen ought to feel that in the contributions towards the maintenance of the government he bears his share, however modest, in some sort of fair proportion, along with the wealthiest. What that fair proportion ought to be, there is no scientific rule for determining, but at least it is not zero. And a like consideration applies to the question of graded rates. The signal advantage of a tax at a uniform percentage of income is that it does not open the door to exploitation that is limited by no principle, and is dependent for its reasonableness solely upon the good sense and good will of the majority. The best thought of the time undoubtedly approves the levying of taxes on those who have a great superfluity at higher rates than on those in moderate circumstances; but the process is not without grave dangers in a democracy. Combining the total exemption of all but a small fraction of the people with the levying of discriminatory rates within that fraction, we have a situation calculated to put the temper of the nation to a severe and critical test.

Now what Mr. Root's speech brings to the fore is a consideration over and above all this, a consideration peculiar to our own system of States united into a nation. Over and above the personal discrimination is the fact that the sectional distribution will be even more lopsided, and that, consequently, many of our States, as States, will be tempted to look upon the tax as solely a thing to be got, and not a thing to be paid. And, since it happens that, through the equal representation of all the States in the Senate, those States which will do nearly all the paying are grossly under-represented in the upper branch of the national Legislature, it is plain that all the danger inherent in a system of high exemption and graded rates is most seriously aggravated under our system of government.

It is plain enough, therefore, that Mr. Root's appeal to what may be called the national conscience of the Senators who represent the more thinly settled and less wealthy States is fully needed. The idea of many of them is evidently that the inequality with which the tax will bear on the various States is not only no objection to it, but a positive recommendation. In point of fact, such inequality, in so far as it fairly corresponds to the ability of the various States to pay, cannot justly be urged as an objection; but there is a point to which the one-sidedness of a scheme of this kind can be carried which offends not only the instinct of equity, but the instinct of sound politics. An object lesson in the exploitation of the wealthy States, light-heartedly given at the very inception of the income-tax régime, and given with many indications of special pleasure in the performance, is calculated to stimulate a spirit which it is not pleasant to see introduced into our national legislation. The Constitutional prohibition of direct taxes except on the basis of apportionment by population was designed as a defence against the possible manifestation of such a spirit. That defence, so far as income taxes are concerned, has been removed; and it will not be a gratifying spectacle to find in the first fruits of that removal an emphatic argument for those who believed in the need of the Constitutional protection.

PATIENT WITH MEXICO.

In quarters where President Wilson's Mexican policy has been regarded with disfavor from the beginning, the attempt is now made to stigmatize that policy as one of failure and humiliation From Vera Cruz we have had dispatches recounting the indignities to which those Americans have been subjected who have made up their minds to comply with the Administration's advice to leave the country. American residents in Mexico City are described as growing restless under the taunts of foreigners—Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans—who say, "What, still here?" There is pungent criticism of Mr. Bryan, upon whom responsibility has presumably been laid for the "weak" features of Washington's diplomacy. On reading these dispatches we at home are expected to share with Americans in Mexico the sense of shame and resentment at a policy of abandonment and scuttle. Whatever may be the original merits of President Wilson's case, we are asked to concur in the simple proposition that no reasons of state and no moral considerations will excuse the sacrifice of this nation's prestige and dignity.

This summary is so clearly false to the sober truth of the Mexican situation, that it would scarcely deserve consideration if it were not for the fact that when argument touches upon the question of national pride some men are apt to grow insensitive both to logic and to facts. Too much stress, therefore, cannot be laid on the truth, plain to all thinking men, that if the prestige and dignity of this Government have indeed been affected, it is an injury which the Government has voluntarily and with open eyes inflicted on itself. It is not fear that has forced us into a policy which its opponents are at liberty to characterize as cowardly, but a

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rigorous limitation which we have imposed upon ourselves. With regard to Mexico our Government has been acting under a self-denying ordinance. President Taft began the policy of forbearance, and President Wilson has continued it. We have been on guard not so much against Mexico as against ourselves. We have risked a possible temporary impairment of our national prestige out of consideration for that true national honor and dignity which demands that this great nation shall be faithful to its own permanent democratic traditions, to its own fair name, and to the dictates of international justice and peace.

Critics of President Wilson's policy may cry scuttle if they will. But they must forbear from sneering at the same time, as they have been doing, at the idea of a foreign policy based on purely ethical considerations. They have been arguing that it is no concern of ours by what reprehensible means Huerta has made himself the ruler of Mexico. This Government is not called upon to play the rôle of international censor of morals. Possibly we are not. But it is plain that the Administration at Washington cannot be accused at the same time of being cowardly and of being unduly sensitive to ethical considerations. The second accusation kills the first. It may be an unwise policy, but it is not a cowardly policy. Don Quixote was hardly a poltroon. A powerful nation confronted by a nation much weaker than itself can afford to be accused of a policy of scuttle. What it cannot afford is to be accused of playing the bully. How long is it since the outside world was grumbling at our Big Stick diplomacy and our shirt-sleeve diplomacy with regard to Latin America? It is possible to imagine an American citizen in Mexico feeling vexed under the taunts of his European fellow-residents. It is not so easy to imagine him feeling ashamed.

Once for all, then, it is well to put aside all discussion of President Wilson's tactics from the point of view that Mr. Hearst likes to assume. We are making temporary sacrifices in Mexico; but we are doing it out of consideration for our own best interests in the final result and the best interests of the Mexican people. Whether our efforts have been tending in that direction is the real question to be answered. It is the belief of the Administration that its work has not failed, and public opinion in this country is predominantly with the Administration in this belief. It is all very well to argue that the first result of the Lind mission has been to strengthen Huerta's position in the country. We still await evidence on this point. As a result of our intervention Huerta may be a little more liked by the kind of people who liked Huerta before. The Constitutionalists have not rallied to him; and they are all the less likely to submit because of the assurance that armed intervention by this country is not forthcoming. It is the opponents of Mr. Wilson's "weak-kneed" policy who would have united Mexico against us by this time.

THIRTY YEARS OF AN EMPIRE.

Thirty years ago there was driven the last spike of the Northern Pacific Railroad, a simple rusty iron nail, which had also been the first used. With that act there was thrown open to rapid settlement the great Northwestern Empire of this country, for the Northern Pacific was the first rail connection between Oregon, Washington, Montana, and the East. The ceremony took place in the open country in western Montana, and the presence, among hundreds of distinguished visitors from abroad and the United States, of a number of Indian chiefs was particularly significant. The day before, the excursionists had passed a Sioux encampment of more than 2,000 persons, among them many warriors who were present seven years before when Custer was killed and his battalion of cavalry exterminated on the Little Big Horn. Almost up to the last year of construction the advance workers on the Northern Pacific had to be protected by United States troops; but after the opening of this railway there was only one more serious Indian outbreak in the Northwest. The driving of the last spike momentously affected seven great States and Territories, but none so much as the original owners of the land, for it marked the beginning of the end of the old frontier, as it marked the disappearance of the transcontinental mail-coach.

The speeches at the opening of the railway, and at the great celebrations held all along the line from St. Paul to Portland, were not lacking in glowing visions of the future. Here was a stretch of three thousand miles suddenly brought into touch with the outside world. Its broad acres contained untold mineral wealth, and its prairie crops were to feed the entire globe. One had only to scratch the surface to reap the golden harvest, and as for its water powers and forests, why, in them alone were wealth and happiness for millions of the unborn. The gigantic task just completed of running a railway across a little-charted Continent, through hundreds of miles of prairie, desert, "bad lands," and almost primeval forest, stirred men not a little, but it was the future that thrilled them more. Lust for the conquest of nature was strong upon them, and their great victory against seemingly insuperable natural obstacles, which they were celebrating September 3, 1883, was merely to be the prelude to vastly greater conquests. Not Pizarro nor Balboa, nor Lewis and Clarke themselves at the climax of their adventures, were more elated by the new worlds they discovered than were the men of the Northwest when the Northern Pacific's iron rails bound them to the East and gave them access to the markets of England and Europe.

As we look back now it is easy to see that these visions and prophetic forecasts were warranted enough at the time. But the first few years brought only disappointments. The expectations of immediate prosperity were utterly dispelled by the world-wide depression of 1883-1886, which checked the looked-for immigration. Thus, the railway, which had earned $12,603,575 gross in 1884, was earning $900,000 less in 1886, with 250 additional miles of track. The farm products of Montana increased in value by only four million dollars between 1880 and 1890, and in Minnesota the increase was only 22 millions in that decade, as contrasted with no less than 90 millions of dollars in the next. But the time came when the expected prosperity did not come about. The three Northern Pacific Territories, Dakota, Montana, and Washington, were admitted as States in 1889, and their total population of 250,000 in 1880 had become in 1910 2,095,000, while Minnesota grew in the same period from 780,773 souls to 2,075,708. The Northern Pacific itself earned $72,676,138 in 1912 on a mileage of 6,313, and its net prof-

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its were $24,312,632. Who shall say what the next thirty years will bring forth in the same section of the United States?

But these material changes are not the only ones that have taken place. Even the disappearance of the buffalo and other big game, the passing of the redskins and the many little army posts whose soldiers kept them in bounds or pursued them when the rapacity of the whites drove them to the warpath—in short, the almost complete transformation of that West which Theodore Roosevelt, the ranchman, described in the eighties is no more striking than the absolute change in the attitude of this Western empire towards the railways themselves. In 1883 the railway builder was the greatest benefactor in the community; to-day he is forgotten, and his successors are too often regarded merely as enemies of society, to be controlled, taxed, and regulated within an inch of their lives. In place of being the greatest asset of the States along its lines, the railway is made an object of suspicion and of hatred—the oppressor of communities, instead of the advance agent of prosperity. In 1870 the States and the Federal Government were ready to make any sacrifice to obtain a Pacific railway. It could have all the land it wanted. Was there not abundance? To-day it is the habit to refer to the land grant of such a line as the Northern Pacific as a "theft of the people's property," without stopping to ask if without it such a road could have maintained itself in its early days, or if its originators, like Jay Cooke, could have been induced to undertake what seemed the impossible task of penetrating the wilderness. With the passing of the pioneer has thus gone a clear understanding of the pioneer's problems.

That this great change in the relations of the railway corporation to the community it serves is in part due to the mistakes or actual wrongdoing of railway managers no one can deny. All the more is it a pity that out of that old feeling of enthusiastic acclaim which marked the running of the first train from St. Paul to Portland there has come the present state of tension and mutual misunderstanding. That was one thing which the orators at the opening of the Northern Pacific did not see in their justified visions of the coming grandeur of their Northwestern empire—just as they did not know that the finding of gold in Alaska would enormously hasten the development of such cities as Tacoma and Seattle. The greater part that was proposed then divine Providence has disposed as they wished. Towns, cities, commonwealths flourish to greatness, as their agricultural lands blossom into riches, and their mines and forests yield up their treasure. It is the human element itself which has proved incalculable.

CHANGING JOURNALISM.

From the point of view of the reading public, the newer journalism is preferable to the old. There has, on the whole, been a general improvement in the daily press in the last twenty years—an all-round speeding up. Newspapers of all classes are better written, more readable, more entertaining, and more attractive than ever they were, and are quite as well informed. Even the greatest of them all, the *Times*, has been touched with the spirit of modern enterprise at every point, and never reached a higher level of journalistic excellence.

These are the words of Mr. Robert Donald, the president of the British Institute of Journalists, in his recent address at the annual conference of that organization. Himself managing editor of the *Daily Chronicle*, he speaks with the intimate knowledge of the working journalist, and sketches with vivid pen the many startling changes in the British press. But if he records what he chiefly and sanguinely regards as progress, he also admits the growth of far-reaching changes of a less desirable kind, akin to those that have taken place in journalism on this side of the water. He does not, for instance, deny that commercialization has gone on apace. The "proprietorial system" has almost disappeared, the corporation having taken the place of the individual owner, to the extent that nine-tenths of the leading daily newspapers "belong to limited companies"; twelve such, listed on the Stock Exchange, figure in its daily quotations. Naturally, he finds that under this corporate ownership "the main concern of shareholders, who are investors and not journalists, is their dividends, and dividends must be earned even if principle has to suffer in the process."

Side by side with this development has come a distinct check to the increase of the number of newspapers in England. That increase has been only 6 per cent. in the morning and evening field for the past twenty years, in which the population has grown 24 per cent., and the reading public at an even faster rate. The explanation of this is not far to seek. It costs large sums nowadays to found newspapers, and the aggressive reaching out into the provinces of the London dailies makes the lot of the small-town newspaper less and less secure and inviting. This competition is accentuated by the simultaneous publication of several newspapers in two centres. If this has stimulated the provincial press to greater efforts, it has damaged the advertising of the press as a whole, the advertiser feeling that the newspapers of great metropolitan and provincial circulation fill all his needs. The more or less sensational methods of the successful London halfpenny papers "make it impossible," Mr. Donald declares, "for papers run on old-fashioned lines to survive." He is sure that the immediate future will see this fierce competition intensified, and more and more of the old-fashioned kind of journals go to the wall. It is the day of the newspaper with tremendous means for special trains, motor-car delivery services, publicity campaigns, and endless billboard and poster advertising, and Mr. Donald prophesies that twenty years hence an English newspaper which has not at least a half-million readers "will not be seriously considered as an organ of the people."

The political and social power of these journalistic Dreadnoughts will not be any less, Mr. Donald feels; and then, to console the small journalist who may see himself finally put out of business by the coming use of the aeroplane, airship, "motorplanes running on special tracks," the merging of morning and evening newspapers, with hourly editions by day or by night, which our authority foresees, he adds that there will be a revival of the purely local country newspapers, "much improved in form and style." But all newspapers, it appears, will have to fear not so much competition from one another as from new methods of delivering news by cinematograph, telephone, or phonograph. This is indubitably looking a little far into the future. But what we do not get from Mr. Donald is some assurance that under the wonderful new conditions the character of newspapers will continue as high and their sense of respectability to the

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public as keen. That is the question which deeply concerns everybody.

We wish the omen were more favorable on this side of the water, or at least clearer. Our worst specimens of the yellow type combine all the bad features of unscrupulous, irresponsible proprietorship and of corporation management. The only thing certain is that the day of the old-fashioned type of newspaper is rendered more difficult by the journal which is the counterpart of the British halfpenny shrieker. There is striking proof of this in a remarkable editorial article that has just appeared in the Chicago *Inter Ocean*, which that veteran journalist, Mr. H. H. Kohlsaat, purchased about a year ago. He declares that "from being the purveyors of news and opinions in due perspective for the public, the daily and periodical press have become very largely the muckrakers of the universe, the distorters of facts, and the debauchers of thought for the masses, in whom eventually abides the fate of the republic." In his crusade to combat this he has been producing in the *Inter Ocean* a newspaper according to the ideals of St. Paul in his epistle to the Philippians. He has made gratifying progress, but here is the warning which is the real keynote of the editorial:

> So long as its present editor retains control of the *Inter Ocean* it will continue faithful to Chicago, true to the higher traditions of journalism, alert and fair in printing the decent news of each day, sane and fearless in discussing the questions of the hour as they arise. But if the business men of Chicago, who have more at stake than the *Inter Ocean*, fail to accord it steady and generous support, the temptation to stand from under may prove irresistible. And then journalism of the "itching palm and wanton eyes" will have its way.

It is the problem of every sane journalist which Mr. Kohlsaat confronts, but it is still more the problem of the intelligent public. Over decent and indecent journalism alike the public has the power of life and death. The question is simply how far it will utilize this power—whether it will guide towards good ends the rapidly changing currents of journalistic activity, or let them be directed solely by the will-o'-the-wisp of individual or corporation gain.

FASHIONS IN SMILES.

This is the heyday of the twisted smile. Unless you can smile crookedly, you are lost. Time was when a "bitter" smile might finely "wreathe your lips," and all be well. There were also the "cynical," "quiet," "gentle," "excited," "faint," "grim," and "ghastly" varieties, formerly regarded as effective. But the latest note from Paris is the "crooked," or "wry," smile. Except your heroine wear it, she might as well wear nothing.

Illustrators, it must be admitted, are still afraid of the new fashion. A virgin field, indeed, awaits the bold artist who will attempt its portrayal. But it must come. The very best literary modistes have adopted the "crooked" smile, to the exclusion of all others.

It is, to begin with, the hall-mark of a perfect lady. Since the days of Van Bibber and The Girl, we have had no more ladylike characters than those of Julian Street. So, when we read in *McClure's* for August, "Then with a rather crooked little smile, Mrs. Railey asked," we sigh with satisfaction, just as when we inspect pictures of Newport ladies. That's what they're wearing this season, "a rather crooked little smile."

The "crooked smile" is effective in many modes. It may be touched up with irony, paradox, or fatalism. Suffrage leaders are wearing it this season, when dismissing their forlorn suitors. Thus the militant discarded the man in Miss Alice Brown's story, in the August *Atlantic:* "She smiled, a little wry, old smile." What could a mere Man do against a "wry smile"? Especially when the "wry" was a "little old"?

All the men are mad over the new style. Ever since sentimental Tommy noticed Grizel's crooked smile, the male idiots have been daft over it. Mrs. Gerould sets us right about this, in the September *Harper's:* "She smiled her sweet, crooked smile, that came out so well in life, and so badly in photographs." And again: "She smiled for the first time as she said it—her crooked smile, that we had all so liked from the beginning."

The girls like it equally well. Samuel Hopkins Adams's hero, in the August *Everybody's,* knew this: "The firm mouth smiled a little awry and unfailingly won her response."

The "crooked smile" is also cynical, and they're all wearing cynicism now. It's the new color. Thus Mr. E. W. Hornung, in the same copy of *Everybody's:* "'A new religion, in which you'll never believe any more,' said Dollar, with a wry smile."

One can use the crooked smile for emphasis, too; for the faint flavor of suggestion so necessary now. Thus, to quote Mrs. Gerould again: "'Sidney, you see'—her crooked smile accentuated the words—'will let me off, on one condition.'"

Some of the modes are, of course, extreme, and hard to imitate. Authors themselves are often not quite sure it *is* a smile. This makes it all the more *distingué*. "Some spasm of expression, that was intended for a smile."

Mr. Hugh Johnson in the September *Century* is responsible for the above mode. Corra Harris, in the August *Harper's,* is equally striking: "A slow, crawling worm of wit, showing slyly in his eyes."

The "crooked smile," however, is undoubtedly most effective when trimmed with introspection and a little spice of morbidity. This style is adapted from the Russian ballet, which, *McClure's* tells us, is the one great dramatic influence of our time. It is interesting to trace its influence on the smile of heroines. Fannie Stearns Davis, in the June *Atlantic,* has best achieved the mode; and, not to weary you, her words shall close our illustrations: "In her heart she would whisper, even while the swift, crooked smile danced across her lips, 'O God, make me remember!'"

These snapshots, taken from the very latest cry in story-forms, prove the popularity of the "wry," or "crooked," style of wearing one's lips. One may see everywhere heroines at practice under the dictate of Fashion, and yet, one may ask, why the "crooked" smile? Are our modern heroines too fond of bitter and forbidden fruit? Is it the Cult of the Ugly that has set this form? Or is the microbe of crookedness in the air, affecting politics, railway signals, and smiles?

PROFESSOR KITTREDGE AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH.

The distinguished scholar whose scientific curiosity burns its way through no man knows what thorny tangles of contemporary research, and who, according to common report, in his heroic vigils nightly outwatches the Bear, very possibly sat down some summer evening to the congratulatory volume marking his twenty-fifth anniversary at Harvard,* and between curfew and cock-crow digested it all, formulated his opinion on the point of each of the forty-five contributions, and slept the sleep of the just. We others, who are but "men of mould," may well content ourselves on this occasion with merely a cursory glance at the stones of this monument of honor and pass on to a consideration of its general significance. Briefly, then, let it be said that in bulk and quality it is comparable with perhaps three or four numbers of the Publications of the Modern Language Association, and that the individual articles, though for the most part of no concern to the non-professional reader, will be perused with interest by those who have reached divergent conclusions upon such points as the date of Hegetor, swan-maidens, Celtic cauldrons of plenty, the priority of the A or B versions of the prologue to the "Legend of Good Women," mediæval lives of Judas Iscariot, Vegetius in English, or Caiaphas as a Palm Sunday prophet. Let it be added that the forty-five contributors are but chosen representatives from Professor Kittredge's great following, that perhaps scores of others are chagrined that their names

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do not appear in the table of contents, that uncounted young Doctors of Philosophy would gladly have come bringing similar gifts with them, who, should they fall in their spring, would be pleased with the simple Grevillian epitaph—"He was a pupil of Kittredge's." Let it be noted, finally, that the entire cost of issuing the volume has been handsomely contributed by the publishers, and that the proceeds of the sale are to constitute a special book fund for the Harvard Library, to be expended under the direction of the Master.

Had it been only what some famous wit has called "a mere damned professor" lapsing quietly into the retiring age, had it been any but he, one would have been inclined to murmur, *sunt hic etiam sua præmia laudi*—a tolerably adequate testimonial, as academic distinctions go, to a quarter of a century spent in the self-effacing life of a scholar. But Professor Kittredge's has not been precisely a self-effacing life, he is not so far as we know about to retire, and we cannot imagine him "quietly lapsing" into anything. He has written learned books and articles on subjects ranging from "Arthur and Gorlagon" to "The Old Farmer and his Almanack," but one wonders whether his reputation would have been perceptibly less to-day if he had not written a line. He has not dulled his palm by the entertainment of newspaper reporters, nor popularized his science for the magazines, nor been a delegate to a national political convention, nor even, we believe, been presented to the Kaiser. He has kept his name austerely within professional circles. Yet he has had his way in his profession. If a ballot were taken, among those qualified to vote, on the most eminent and influential professor of English in America, who would head the list if it were not he? He has exercised, indeed, a kind of overlordship upon English instruction in this country. But whether by virtue of his official position, or his erudition, or the merit of his ideas, or by his organizing power and the singularly dynamic force of his personality, the big congratulatory volume does not indicate—is as inarticulate as a cairn on a battlefield. The occasion demands a tablet and an inscription, and perhaps the unveiling of a portrait.

I.

First of all, let us declare that Professor Kittredge belongs to that generation of great college teachers which well-informed observers tell us is rapidly giving place to a later undergrowth of special investigators. There are, to be sure, a few small colleges left in the land, which, without much regard for "productive scholarship," still bestow their pudding and praise upon the man who can master his classroom, stab the laggards broad awake, and by the venerable inquisitorial methods discover and develop the young men of parts. But generally nowadays the word is passed round among the rising generation of instructors that the way to get on in the academic walk is not to waste time on one's pupils, but to publish—it matters not what. Whatever indirect responsibility Professor Kittredge may share in the propagation of this notion, it is undeniable that his own example has not sanctioned it. When the "efficiency" experts began last spring their abortive inquiries into the time spent by members of the instructional staff in preparation for each lecture, Professor Kittredge said, as it is reported, "I shall refuse to answer; it is my trade secret." A thoroughly characteristic *mot*, and it helped reveal the Philistine futility of the investigation. The special flavor of it lay in one's certainty that the *questionnaire* would, as a matter of fact, be dropped by him summarily and with perfect impunity into the waste-basket, and in the universal recognition that as a teacher, pure and simple, Professor Kittredge is, as they say in Cambridge, "one of the glories of the University." We are thinking now particularly of that famous course in Shakespeare which for many years has been one of the good reasons for going to Harvard.

There is a persistent tradition that Professor Kittredge formed what we may call his undergraduate manner in his preliminary pedagogic experiments long ago at the Phillips Exeter Academy. It is a manner primarily adapted to young, resistant, "tough-minded" persons, and it is perhaps not unconsciously reminiscent of Dr. Boyer of immortal memory and of that older schoolmaster at whose hands John Dryden received, as he gratefully testified, the only thrashing that he ever deserved. Exponents of the new style of teaching salute their assembled pupils in the French fashion with a courteous "Gentlemen," deliver an essay spiced with epigrams, or twitter extemporaneously through the hour, bow, and disappear. Or—of another type—enter the lecture room, weary, dreary from their private lucubrations, explain that they are but fellow-workers with their pupils in the same vineyard, pull out a sheaf of ill-digested notes, and drone away till the welcome bell. The new style is based not merely on the assumption that the student is "interested in his own intellectual welfare," but also on the far wider assumption that he is interested in his teacher's intricate "special problem." In dealing with undergraduates, Professor Kittredge is an educational realist. He assumes nothing but the general ignorance, indolence, and inattentiveness of undisciplined youth. He sees congregated before him, in that curious mixture fostered by the Harvard system, boys of eighteen and men with hair as white as his own, hard students and loafers from the "Gold Coast," keen-eyed freshmen from the Cambridge and Boston Latin Schools and untrained bachelors from the soft Southern colleges, stiff-necked elderly schoolmasters who wish to "brush up a bit," and opinionated, unlicked cub professors on leave from the exuberant West. He does not cast a farewell glance about the room and dive into a manuscript. He envisages the situation. Before instruction proper can begin this unequal conglomeration of alertness and dulness, humility and conceit, must be subjugated, must be terrorized, must be welded by common apprehension into one homogeneous whole.

Perhaps the technique of terror is a "trade secret," too, but it is also a rich legend recited by every group of men that have studied English at Harvard. After the lapse of a good many years we can call up with perfect distinctness some of the Black Fridays when there was great slaughter of the Innocents. A pretty abrupt hush follows his rapid footsteps up the aisle, deepens as he seats himself sidewise and menaces us thunderously from behind the formidable blue glasses, becomes painfully intense as he rises to stride to and fro the length of the platform in a kind of tiger-tread, and the blackboard pointer, overstrained by his nervous fingers, breaks with an electrifying snap. We are about to enjoy a bad quarter of an hour. "Mr. A! How does a play begin?" "With dialogue," hazards Mr. A. "Mr. B! How does a play begin?" "With the introduction of the characters," stammers Mr. B anxiously. "Mr. C! How does a play begin?" Mr. C, who is from the Gold Coast, quietly mumbles, "I don't know." The hunt is afoot. The next dozen men go down amid derisive snickers—no one dares to laugh aloud—like clay pipes before a crack marksman. Panic spreads. Half of us refuse to answer to our names. The other half, in desperate agitation between an attempt to conjure up any sort of reply and a passionate desire to sink through the floor, shudderingly wait for the next victim, till the pursuer, at last weary of the sport, cries out, "A play begins *in mediis rebus!*" Then we turn to the text. "'We would not die in that man's company that fears his fellowship to die with us.' Mr. X! Explain 'that fears his fellowship to die with us.'" Mr. X proffers something very elaborate and very confused. "Somebody explain that explanation!"—this with the true Johnsonian shout. "Mr. Y!" Mr. Y moistens his lips, starts, hems, hesitates, fumbles for words. "Come! Come! Mr. Y. Time flies! Hell threats! Heaven invites!" Mr. Y shuns salvation and hangs silent in Limbo. Mr. Z ventures on a surly pleasantry and is greeted with an invi-

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tation to "come over and swap jests with me at 2:30 this afternoon." We all envy Mr. Z as we should envy a man invited to take supper in a lion's den. Like many other of the great experiences of life, it was a rigorous ordeal while one was undergoing it, but it was pleasant to look back upon years afterwards, and, like Purgatory, it was very salutary.

The instruction proper had, also, as we recall it, a powerful purgatorial quality. What has subsequently seemed to us to be Professor Kittredge's guiding spirit is happily embodied in one of the "golden sayings," to use his own phrase, of Josh Billings: "It ain't the things we don't know that makes such fools of us, but a whole lot of things that we know that ain't *so*." This, despite the vernacular dress, is the spirit of science, and for at least once in a lifetime it was an entirely wholesome spirit to encounter amid the bogs and fens of Shakespearean "interpretation." "War to the death," was the cry in that course, "on gushing Mrs. Jamesons, moralizing clergymen, and fantastic Teutonic metaphysicians." "There are many ways of studying Shakespeare," he told us, "but the object of this course is to ascertain what Shakespeare said and what he meant when he said it." The session ordinarily began with five or ten minutes during which we called out questions on difficult points in the previous day's reading. These he answered instantly, always without consulting the book, and succinctly or copiously as the case required. For the next ten or fifteen minutes he subjected us in our turn to a grilling examination on whatever we had prepared for the day. For the rest of the hour he commented with racy phrase and startling illustration, and left the room at the last minute, talking all the way down the aisle and half way down the stairs.

II.

For graduate students there was another manner. Jupiter Tonans gave way to benignant Jove, a being of equal or greater fascination, but with his terrors laid by, alert, omniscient as it seemed, a hawk-eyed critic still, but of princely amenity, tireless helpfulness, and the cordialest interest in one's personal destiny. This is the Kittredge of the disciples—the candidates for the doctorate—who hand down his *obiter dicta* from year to year, and speak of his chance commendation of some former pupil or pupil's work, as one speaks of the conferring of an Order of Merit.

There was nothing lethargic in the atmosphere of those meetings. When the analysis and destruction of a great piece of German interpretation was completed one felt such a glow of satisfaction as must have thrilled the blood of a red-handed Saxon churl when he had assisted good King Alfred in flaying off a Dane skin and nailing it up on a church door. Nor, under that leadership, did one's interest flag when occasion failed for noble rage and cannibalistic enterprise. Fired by that unrelenting ardor, one fixed one's attention with as intense a concern upon a disputed comma in a Canterbury tale as one could have felt for the most momentous crisis in the affairs of a nation. One could sit for week after week copying down under that dynamic dictation an endless ballad bibliography that one never used, nor ever hoped to use, and yet maintain through it all the spellbound gravity of one hearkening to a seraphic discussion of fate and foreknowledge absolute.

Best of all were the ever-memorable individual conferences, when the candidate, now going heavily with his dissertation, visited the arbiter of his fate by special appointment at some hour not far from midnight, and came upon him, in the midst of his study, seated at the centre of a great half-moon of tomes and treatises, and enveloped and clouded, like a god, in infinite smoke. You began the interview with a half-hour of wizardry, during which, while you helped thicken the smoke, he told you of the smoking customs of barbarians or poured out odd stories of witchcraft and alchemy in New England. Then you explained your difficulties and he cleared them up, or you told him what you were hunting for, and he pulled out of some recess or other a box full of references bearing exactly upon the point, and filed away months or years before, when he was working upon the same topic. You returned to your labors with a persuasion that there was no topic which had not, on one occasion or another, engaged his attention. You returned with a feeling, also, that your academic fortune was insured. For it may be said of Professor Kittredge, as it was said of the old Germanic chiefs, who never forgot their friends nor forgave their enemies, he has been a good "Ring-Giver."

III.

We have spoken with some fulness of the more personal side of Professor Kittredge's teaching, because it is only by dwelling upon his dæmonic energy, his relentlessly positive temper, and his passion for domination that we can make wholly credible, even to ourselves, the nature and extent of the influence that he has exercised upon the teaching and the study of English at Harvard and throughout the country. For it must be frankly admitted that he has wielded his authority against a good deal of bitter opposition, and that many who have been constrained to submit to it have been rather subjugated than pacified.

There is a current story that a certain student, hankering vaguely in his uncorrected youth for the divine elation and finding himself out of the way of experiencing it, admitted to Professor Kittredge that he was not interested in "mere facts." "I am interested," was the withering response, "in nothing but facts." Doubtless the word "facts" had a wider meaning in the retort than in the provocation, and perhaps the whole incident is apocryphal. It is none the less suggestive. It hints at a type of pitcher, not empty nor entirely worthless, that is not readily filled at that well. It is a curious matter that though for years we have heard witnesses testifying various indebtedness to their guide, philosopher, and friend, we do not recall that any one has acknowledged indebtedness to him for a "love of good literature." We are inclined to doubt whether he considers it any part of his function to impart to his students a love of literature. We are certain that they receive little encouragement from him to form opinions upon the æsthetic or other merits of the pieces with which they are engaged. Possibly an early abhorrence of elegant lecturers and uninformed enthusiasms has hardened with time into an unconcealed, somewhat contemptuous antipathy for "literary fellows," concerned with the ideas and emotions which constitute the spirit of letters. "What did you learn in those graduate seminars that was permanently useful to you?" the writer once inquired of a favorite pupil, who was teaching modern English literature. "To verify my references," was the reply, "and to transcribe quoted passages with punctilious accuracy." That was, of course, a jest. What the speaker meant was that he had carried away the technique and the ideal of scientific research. That, as we take it, is what Professor Kittredge has principally desired to impart to graduate students.

Now, it is impossible to make the study of literature a rigorously scientific pursuit without terribly impoverishing it. You cannot give it the standing of a science unless you deliberately choose to ignore those scientifically imponderable elements of thought and feeling which essentially and permanently distinguish the field of humane letters from the field of science. In the approach to these elements the scientific spirit is, as every one would admit, an indispensable lamp to the feet, but in dealing with them one must use a headlight filled with another oil. The moment that you touch upon them, you have passed the boundaries of the unvarnished verifiable fact. You are in the Debatable Land; you are in the moral world. Philosophy and religion lie before you, and ethics and æsthetics—which is not a science outside of Ger-

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many—encompass you around. You must proceed with tradition, authority, and a seasoned judgment to guide you, yet walking mainly by the "inner light." You are shoulder to shoulder with the thrice accursed "literary fellows" in the demesne of the man of letters. You are in imminent peril of becoming a literary dilettante, and there is one chance in a thousand that you may become a great critic or literary historian.

Professor Kittredge has taken few chances at making great literary historians or critics. Hating the literary dilettante with a perfect hatred, he has probably never paused to consider whether the odds are not equally heavy against the production of a great philologist, nor whether, for the service to which he is called, the literary dilettante is not on the whole about as useful a kind of humbug or mediocrity as the linguistic dilettante. Pausing, we may suspect, to meditate neither of these important questions, he has squarely turned his back upon the Debatable Land and has led his followers by forced marches into the opposite quarter of the English field, where he has taught them the elements of textual criticism and linguistic science, interested them in the editing of unpublished manuscripts and the collection of folklore, and made them all zealous bibliographers and compilers of card indexes. In short, he has been a potent force in bringing about the present sterilizing divorce of philology from general ideas. If his school has not been very prolific in important books, it should be remembered that one of its maxims is, "Any one can write a book; the difficult thing is to write an article." This appears to be a veiled way of saying that the digestion of facts, however weighty, sinks into insignificance in comparison with the discovery of facts, however trifling.

The great field for the discovery of facts, memorable chiefly because they have been forgotten, has long been the Middle Ages, and Professor Kittredge is a mediævalist. To a mind in which the master impulse is a wide-ranging curiosity this tract of literature is endlessly fascinating, by virtue of just those qualities which, to a mind with ulterior purposes like Matthew Arnold's, for example, make it seem almost negligible—its prolixity, its formlessness, its naïve superstitions, its lack of high seriousness, its insolidity of substance.

We are not so foolish as to object that an eminent mediævalist has followed his bent. Our objection is only that he has, in no very indirect way, prevented other men from pursuing their bents. There should certainly be room and following at Harvard for a distinguished scholar in the mediæval period. But there should also be room and following for men qualified to deal in a really distinguished fashion with the vital ideas and movements of English literature since the Renaissance. We will not speak for the present year of grace—conditions vary somewhat from year to year. But within, say, the last fifteen years, there have been long intervals when, barring the drama, there was almost no instruction in English offered at Harvard that an intelligent graduate student could take seriously in the period from the sixteenth to the nineteenth century. There were popular "snap" lecture courses for miscellaneous good-natured auditors; but for the student who had got beyond that, neither guidance nor encouragement. When, in conformity with the printed invitation, the candidate for the higher degree unfolded to the Department his plans and desires for work in modern literature, a majestic figure waved him to a more removed ground. There was nothing on paper to indicate objection to his enterprise, but after a few weeks he began to perceive that the modern period was not, so to speak, in good odor with those in authority. There was the system which incorporated the leading ideas of the Chairman of the Division of Modern Languages, and which prepared one for research in the Middle Ages. The core of the course was prescribed and the rind very strongly intimated—Germanic Philology, Romance Philology, Historical Grammar, Old Norse, Anglo-Saxon Grammar, Beowulf, Lynewulf, Old Irish perhaps, Ballads and Metrical Romances, Chaucer, Shakespeare, another course in the Drama also desirable. It was notorious that in the grand ordeal of the far-dreaded final examination serious inquisition into your scholarship would, in nine cases out of ten, end with the fourteenth century.

Without drawing too closely the links between cause and effect we may say that the conditions prevailing at Harvard at the period which we have been describing have affected more or less seriously the teaching of English throughout the country. Departments in the older institutions with established and more humane traditions of their own have, of course, been less subject to the influence, and at least one great department has gained in prestige in proportion as it has reacted against it. It is in the small colleges and in the younger universities with rapidly growing faculties that the new generation of English teachers have been planted and have had their way. And it is when you see the newly-fledged philologist at work, teaching composition (an art which he has never practiced) and eighteenth-century prose (a sea which for him has never been charted), it is then that you begin to recognize that something is out of joint in the state of Denmark. It is when you have observed half a dozen aspiring instructors publishing in the learned journals first-hand comments on mediæval syntax, etymology, and beast fable, and uttering in their classrooms third and fourth-hand comments on Milton, Dryden, and Tennyson—it is then that you understand the vogue of the teachers who "vitalize" literature by the use of the magic lantern. It is when you have attended the annual advertising picnic of the "scientific investigators" and have compared the quality of the papers and discussions at a convention of the Modern Language Association with those of the historical and philosophical societies—it is then that you wonder why it is that, wherever English scholarship is taken seriously, from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico and from the James River to the Golden Gate, all America mediævalizes. It is when you have lived for some years in an English department, and have watched your colleagues settling into the rôle of routine teachers, losing their zest for discovery or taking it as a recreation like golf, abandoning the hunt for subjects and letting the dust gather on their card catalogues—it is then that you feel what Professor Grandgent, in his Anniversary contribution, has described as "the necessity of self-deception regarding the futility of human endeavor." You feel in this "fellowship of scholars" an almost tragical lack of common interests and ideas. You feel as one wandering in an intellectual Sahara in a silence unbroken save by an investigating sparrow chirping from time to time over a kernel of musty wheat in the shroud of Ptolemy the Great.

THE FRENCH UNIVERSITY CONFLICT.

(Formation versus Information.)

PARIS, August 27.

For two years and more, a campaign has been waging against the University of France in its spirit and its official teaching, and in its pretension to form the mind and will of the French people. The foreigner who wishes to understand independently even the state of the question has to confront a literature comparable to that of some historical epoch. It is only in the light of a first fact of the collective life of France that any understanding at all of the case can be reached. This fact is that, in France, the University is in politics; and that politics is religion, just as religion too often—and anti-religion always—is politics.

The offensive in the campaign has been taken by Young France. The defence, it must be said, has all the marks of a generation already passing. After much rumbling discontent, the note of defiance to University authority was raised in the publication of "L'Esprit de la Nouvelle Sorbonne"

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(Mercure de France), signed "Agathon." It was the joint work of two sons of the University, Alfred de Tarde and Henri Massis. They have continued their campaign by publishing in the present year "Les Jeunes Gens d'aujourd'hui" (Plon). Among the more decisive books which have come to emphasize their attack or give it another direction are "La Doctrine officielle de l'Université" (Mercure de France), by an avowed philosopher of Reaction, Pierre Lasserre; and "Aux Ecoutes de la France qui vient" (Grasset), by Gaston Rion, who prophesies of the coming generation and looks to the Geneva of Calvin for guidance, but has Emile Faguet, of the Academy, to introduce him. A "symposium" investigating the literary youth of France—"A quoi rêvent les Jeunes Gens" (Champion), by Emile Henriot—adds a number of representative personal letters.

For it is the formation of French youth which is at stake. These combatants, who are newly men, come forth to fight that the national genius may still be trained to aspiration and to action by the traditional Humanities, and not be immolated to materialism and the ideals of internationalism by new science.

The "new Sorbonne" which is the occasion of the campaign dates formally from the revolutionary University programmes of 1902, in which the classics were cast into the sea of elective wreckage, while modern and historical methods—the latter, it is charged, "made in Germany"—take their place. In reality, it is said, this plan of studies continues the policy of the Jacobins of the Revolution, of the *idéologues* suppressed by Napoleon, and of late *intellectuels* of Socialism and internationalism. A people like the French naturally react strongly against such a transformation imposed on them by politics. For it must be remembered that the various French universities all merge in the one State University of France, which conveys official teaching of every grade to the French people and is as much a government service as the civil administration, the machinery of justice, or army and navy.

The campaign against the University reform of 1902 was not begun in the cause of religion, although religious exasperation has gone so far as to accuse the University authorities of suppressing Latin in order to discourage vocations to the priesthood, which requires a knowledge of Latin. The League for French Culture has in its Committee of Honor thirty-three of the forty Immortals of the French Academy; twenty of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres; thirty-one of the Academy of Sciences; twenty-six of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, and twenty-six of the Academy of Fine Arts. The manifesto to which they have given their names speaks for them:

> On every side there is verified the weakening of general culture, with forgetfulness of our qualities of clearness and logic. There is talk of a *crisis of French*. This uneasiness coincides with the abandonment of classical studies, the discredit of Latin and Greek, and the abuse of specialization which a series of reforms has introduced in the higher as well as the secondary teaching. Above all, the reform of 1902, which was carried through with a utilitarian aim, has broken the unity and integrity of our system of studies.
>
> Experience has condemned these new tendencies. It is not men of letters and *dilettanti* who have proved the insufficiency of modern teaching; it is men of science, physicians, engineers, manufacturers.
>
> The League for French Culture has for its purpose to group together all who believe in the superiority of classical education.
>
> Defence of the Humanities—that is, not only of Latin and Greek studies, but of general and disinterested cultivation of the mind—such is the precise meaning of its action.

Henri Poincaré led the campaign of this League for Culture with an explanation of the necessity of training in the Humanities for the study of the sciences:

> There might be a serious objection to classical studies. If it is to be desired that nine out of ten Frenchmen become good merchants and business men, is it not dangerous to disgust them beforehand with that which is to fill their lives? No doubt, it would not be impossible to refute such an objection; but that is no business of mine. . . . I seek what must be done to form men of science. And here all is clear. The man of science ought not to tarry in the realization of practical aims; these, no doubt, he will obtain, but he must obtain them over and above. . . . Science has wonderful applications; but the science which would have in view only the applications would no longer be science—it would be only the kitchen. There is no science but disinterested science. . . . The spirit which should animate the man of science is that which breathed of old on Greece and brought there to birth poets and thinkers. There remains in our classical teaching I know not what of the old Greek soul; I know not what that makes us look ever upward. And that is more precious for the making of a man of science than the reading of many volumes of geometry.

Pierre Lasserre, who fights for other causes than French culture, defines the "accusation":

> It is said that philosophy, history, and letters no longer exist, are cultivated only by name in the new Sorbonne. That which takes their place and figures in their stead is reduced to a purely material labor of bibliography, classifying, numbering, and ticketing, of documentation and erudition blind and without thought. . . . [In the secondary education] it sacrifices that which is the object itself, the reason for existing, of the *lycée* or college—that is, the general formation of the mind, the formation of the man—to the fallacious utilitarianism of premature specialization. . . . With the pretext of bringing *school* and *life* as near together as possible, it asks the school to furnish data and lessons and influence and maturity which only life itself, with its experience and practice and business undertakings, can make alive—and which will live then only in minds and hearts that are prepared. Now, it is this preparation which is compromised.

Here we are on ground familiar to Americans who remember the opening of Cornell University and the early reforms of President Eliot of Harvard. It is rather the extremity of French University controversies that perplexes us. Professor Lanson, of the Sorbonne, answers back:

> Classical culture was general culture—a formal, brilliant, superficial education, a training to speak of everything without knowing anything exactly. Teaching was mainly oratorical and formal. It was a question of drilling minds to the rhetoric of the salon and the tribune; . . . to give the mind a pretty form.

While he does not judge the "formation of mind" so bitterly, Professor Lavisse does sum up the traditional classical education as aiming at the formation of the man *comme il faut*. He asserts that Colbert and great Frenchmen like him came from colleges where they learned nothing but Latin. The assertion is not in accord with what we know of the routine work of such colleges, and still less with the immediate mastery of life shown by Colbert and other students issuing from them. Englishmen fondly repeat that India was conquered to their country on the benches of Eton, where, besides Latin, there was little taught but Greek. Or was it on the Eton cricket field? One of these new Frenchmen, writing to "Agathon" on the revolution which is turning French youth from their University, has hit on this:

> My first criticism is that you seem to me not to attribute to athletic sport the part it really plays. I believe this part essential. It is not because the young men of to-day are *anti-intellectualiste* that they give themselves up to sports. On the contrary, in my opinion, it is because they go in for sport that they are *anti-intellectualiste*. . . . By accepting the value of sport, they have come forth from that nihilism which, you say, was peculiar to the preceding generation.

It must not be thought that we are here running up a side alley in this labyrinth of University disputes and revolutions of Young France. Automobiles and Latin, Catholic renaissance and minds formed to the higher mathematics, all turn and wind in this maze where theory is at conflict with life. For, from the whole controversy, there is one thing certain—the ultra-modern reforms of the University of France have excited not only the opposition of the older masters of French learning

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and science. They are diametrically opposed to the evolution of that part of Young France which seems likely to count most for the future.

Whether this wave of reaction will be sufficient to bring back classical education is another question. And whether, as Henri Poincaré, with others like him, thought, French science is to suffer from the loss of the Humanities, is yet another. A foreign observer, in an ingenious anecdote, puts the case as it is here and now—for the benefit of "Agathon":

> A notable American, who prided himself on sociology, came lately to study France. He asked to be shown the tomb of Napoleon, the Moulin Rouge, and a French peasant. . . . Most foreigners would have asked to see the Sorbonne, for the France they love and admire, though with a shadow of disdain, is rationalist, humanitarian, and decadent France—that which the young generation repudiates so violently. What is outside of that France generally escapes their notice.

S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

No translation of Boswell's "Life of Johnson" was known to Birkbeck Hill, most inquisitive of Johnsonians. Lord Rosebery in his address at the Lichfield commemoration in 1909 said that he had heard only of an abstract in Russian. To Hill Dr. Johnson appeared "so English that foreigners could neither understand him nor relish his Life." Even a less enthusiastic reader might vary the application of certain words of Dr. Johnson's to express the opinion that a translation "would be impossible if it were endeavored, and would be foolish if it were possible." And, indeed, the French, the Italians, the Spaniards, and the Danes seem, so far as my inquiries have gone, to have been thoroughly intimidated all these 122 years. But Dr. Hill or Lord Rosebery could have discovered from such accessible sources of information as Brockhaus's or Meyer's Konversationslexikon that once upon a time there was one, bolder than the rest, who did not shrink from the high emprise of translating the great Biography. This one was a German, and a woman.

Her Boswell is a scarce little book. There is apparently no copy in the British Museum; it is not mentioned under "Boswell" in the catalogue of printed books of the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris; neither the Rothschild nor the Municipal Library at Frankfort nor the Royal Library at Munich has it; and German booksellers in a large way do not regard with confidence the prospects of procuring a copy. But one may be seen at the Royal Library in Berlin.

Its title is "Denkwürdigkeiten aus dem Leben Samuel Johnson's von James Boswell Esq." The translation was made from the second edition and was published at Königsberg in 1797 by Friedrich Nicolovius, who, by the way, must have presumed a liberal taste among the Germans for translations from the English, for he issued about the same time one of Butler's "Hudibras."

The name of the translator does not appear on the title page, nor, in full, elsewhere in the book. A dedication to some Hofrath is signed "M. L.," the designation "Uebersetzerin" under a footnote shows the sex, and a little bibliographic research soon disclosed her to have been one Dorothea Mathilde Liebeskind. More research revealed nothing further about her.

Of her version only a part was published. It is contained in a small volume of 532 pages, and extends to the letter which Johnson wrote to Boswell on March 15, 1772. The intention is expressed in a preface to conclude the last volume with a list of all the writings acknowledged by, or ascribed to, Johnson, the titles of which were, however, to be reproduced in the original language. As nothing further could be learned about the translator, it is not known why she did not finish her work. It is still true that a *complete* translation of Boswell's "Life of Johnson" does not exist in any language.

What manner of performance is this German Boswell, as far as it goes? The translator flattered herself that she had given an exact reproduction of the picture of Johnson in respect of the drawing as well as the coloring; but, while a degree of fidelity bordering on literalness will not be denied, the product is far from Boswell's "Flemish picture." To use an expression of Dr. Johnson's borrowed from another art, the tune is there, but not the tone. Boswell himself with delightful ingenuousness branded as "cold-blooded and morose mortals" those "who dislike this Book"; we should be less severe towards the Germans if their indifference discouraged the completion of this translation.

LEO NEWMARK.

Correspondence

THE SCHOLAR AND THE LIBRARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Joseph De Perott expressed in your issue of August 21 what was evidently heart-felt exasperation with our public libraries. Although I have no hope of convincing him by my reply, I should, being at present a librarian and formerly having been a college instructor, and so knowing something of his kind, like to say a few words in answer to his points of criticism.

His first grievance is that he was supplied with no list of Spanish novels of chivalry printed before 1650 when he asked for a list of such of these as were in the possession of the libraries of Boston, New York, and Washington. Either the libraries possessed none of the novels, or, through what was to him inexcusable ignorance of Spanish novels of chivalry, they were unable to answer his question. In the first place, I should like to call attention to his unwillingness to give all the help he could have given in answering his question, because this is a characteristic attitude on the part of library users, and I regret to say more especially on the part of college professors and other "scholars" who are the very ones who should realize the value of precision. In this case, Mr. De Perott evidently had at hand a complete list of the novels he wished, namely, that in the "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles." It would have made his question easier to answer, and would have saved probably hours of search on the part of some underpaid library assistant, if he had sent a copy of this list to the libraries in question, asking them to check off those books in their possession; for then a few minutes' consultation of the catalogue would have given him a precise answer. Or if he could not take the time from his scholarly activities to copy this list, he might at least have given the reference to the "Biblioteca," for the chances are a thousand to one that the Boston and New York libraries at least have this bibliography. To be sure, the ideal reference librarian would have consulted his Spanish bibliographies, but even the best are not ideal, and demands are many. Furthermore, if the gentleman had taken the pains to consult Mr. Whitney's catalogue of the Ticknor collection in the Boston Public Library, he could have answered his own question as far as one library was concerned. I have no doubt he could have found this catalogue in the Worcester Public Library or in the library of Clark University. Apropos of novels of chivalry and roguery, it might be interesting to know, shocking as the knowledge would prove, how many college graduates could tell what a picaresque novel is. At least I congratulate Mr. De Perott and the ignorant world of librarians and others that, in spite of American libraries, the recent article in the "Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen" was not still-born. Alas for the Athens of America!

The next point of criticism is that books are bought by libraries only when there is a demand for them, and that many rare books useful to scholars are not in our public libraries even when they might have been bought by the alert librarian at a merely nominal price. If the gentleman is speaking of public libraries supported by public taxation for the use and education of the masses, I am inclined to think that the consensus of unscholarly opinion would be that the public cause might be farther advanced by the purchase of other books than an Italian translation of the Greek novels or than a copy of "Il Sacrificio degli Intronati." Aside from wise appropriation of public funds, mere physical limitations make it sensibly clear that public librarians should be careful not to load their shelves with books which would be used rarely or almost never by a very limited class, when by so doing they must exclude books that would be of use and benefit to many readers with needs which are vitally real if not scholarly. One has a right to expect Harvard or Columbia or libraries that have primarily scholarly aims to have such books as Mr. De Perott speaks of, but even in the case of a huge university library such as that of Harvard, the mere storage of little-used books is a serious problem and will continue to be so even with its new building. Not long ago, if I remember accurately, President Eliot spoke quite strongly on this point and advocated separate storehouses of books which a university library should have, but could not afford to shelve with its books more generally used.

From personal experience, I can say that this criticism that libraries buy only books demanded is unjust, for I know that li-

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brarians of college and reference libraries are on a constant lookout for books of this very sort. Recently several of the reference and university libraries of Chicago have combined to send a representative to Europe for this purpose, and this present summer this representative is in South America searching for rare and valuable books. Consequently, from only a slight knowledge of the matter, I am very sure that, although Mr. De Perott has been disappointed in several cases, his general criticism is not well founded in the case of libraries which might reasonably be expected to cater to scholars. Also he must remember that general libraries cover the whole field of human knowledge, and that the specialist in any particular subject must expect to find a proper balance among the various branches.

As for the "American notion of cataloguing books from the title alone," an examination of one of the printed catalogue cards of the Library of Congress, the John Crerar Library, Harvard College Library, or the Boston Public Library—say a card for one of the incunabula—will make one wonder if the present critic is entirely familiar with all the methods of American cataloguing.

A lack of courtesy is always to be deplored, and the evidences "of centuries of half-education" are extremely irritating to those bearing the weight of centuries of culture, but what are we to expect in the letters of poor maiden library assistants, when scholars write in their letters sentences like the following: "Now, the late Dr. Furness had a copy of *it*, and I have three of *them*, but a person who should ask for *it* at an American library would probably get nothing but a stare"?

HENRY NICHOLS SANBORN.

Chicago, September 3.

"HEREOS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The word at the head of this note appears, so far as I know, in not a single dictionary, old or new, and it has dropped, as regards its real significance, into absolute oblivion. Yet it occurs in two of the classics of English literature, and an adjective derived from it (although this origin has never been recognized) is one of the key-words of a famous third.

The well-known description in the "Knight's Tale" of the pains of love which Arcite suffered, ends with the lines:

> And in his gere, for al the world he ferde
> Not oonly lyk *the loveres maladye*
> *Of Hereos*, but rather lyke manye
> Engendred of humour malencolyk
> Biforen, in his celle fantastyk (A 1372-76).

The word *Hereos* has puzzled Chaucerian scholars from Speght and Thynne until now, and the generally accepted explanation—that it is a fourteenth-century attempt at *Eros*—is wrong. *Hereos* is a technical medical term, used by the mediæval physicians whom Chaucer knew (among them his "Arnold of the Newe Toun" and the Bernard whom the Doctour of Phisyk had read) for a specific and well-recognized malady, which can be traced in the treatises on medicine from Galen and the later Greek writers through the great Arabic physicians and their followers straight down to Robert Burton. Moreover, it explains a well-known crux in the "Philobiblon" of Richard of Bury, and it throws an entirely new light upon the origin and significance of the adjective *heroicall* in the "Anatomy of Melancholy" and elsewhere. And finally, it has very direct bearing upon the paraphernalia of conventions summed up under the name of courtly love. The subject, however, is too wide even to sketch in a note, but its unusually varied interest, both human and literary, seems to warrant this brief preliminary statement.

JOHN LIVINGSTON LOWES.

Cambridge, Mass., August 29.

RURAL SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The improvement of our country schools, especially in the Eastern States, is a most important educational duty at the present time. Until the children in our farming communities are properly instructed, we cannot expect the growth of stanch and intelligent men and women, similar to those who founded our nation, and fitted properly to develop our agricultural wealth. A great difficulty is that in many country districts there is no one capable of selecting proper teachers and of supervising the instruction given. Consequently, I suggest that county school committees shall be chosen, who shall appoint teachers for the rural schools, direct the instruction to be given, and care for the school buildings. JAMES M. HUBBARD.

Boston, Mass., September 4.

Textbooks

THEORIES OF TEACHING.

Among recent educational books several may be mentioned as sources of special information. Since the first edition of "Medical Inspection of Schools" (Survey Associates, Inc.), by Gulick and Ayres, was published by the Russell Sage Foundation in 1909 there has been a threefold increase in the number of American cities having systems of medical inspection, and a new edition brings the subject up to date. "The Conservation of the Child" (Lippincott), by Arthur Holmes, is a study of defective children and a description of the work done by the Psychological Clinic of the University of Pennsylvania. Prof. Frank M. McMurry's "Elementary School Standards" (World Book Co.) is an attempt to estimate the quality of the teaching, the course of study, and the supervision by the principals in the elementary schools. The investigation was part of the New York City School Inquiry, and a wealth of illustrative detail makes the book at least an instructive study. "The Kindergarten" (Houghton Mifflin) consists of three reports by Susan E. Blow, Pattie Smith Hill, and Elizabeth Harrison, appointed by the International Kindergarten Union to formulate the theory and programme of the kindergarten. One gets the impression that the kindergarten is rather overloaded with Hegelian philosophy. Laura L. Plaisted's "Handwork and its Place in Elementary Education" (Frowde) is a rather full and well-illustrated practical manual. W. J. Gibson's "Education in Scotland" (Longmans) is a short and convenient sketch of the history of Scotch education and recent movements. For those who may be interested we mention Emma Sheridan Fry's little handbook of "Educational Dramatics" (Moffat, Yard).

It is a good deal of a question whether formal instruction in morals can be made effective in the schools; and in any case it is a question where to begin. The second question is treated sensibly and clearly by Prof. E. Hershey Sneath, of Yale, and Dean George Hodges, of the Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, in a readable manual entitled "Moral Training in the School and Home" (Macmillan), which also points the way to a quantity of useful material in the form of illustrated stories. It is worth noting that stress is laid upon the nearly forgotten household virtues as a point of departure.

As a specimen of the noisy and pugnacious in pedagogical literature, we recommend "Youth and the Race" (Scribner), by Edgar James Swift, professor of psychology and education in Washington University. The one thesis that emerges from this "study of the psychology of adolescence," with its ramble of edifying illustrations, including dialect stories and newspaper quotations, is that, where school and child disagree, the truth lies with the child; and for dramatic effect the tension of the disagreement is greatly exaggerated. By virtue of the special illumination afforded by primitive racial instincts (such as those manifested in "the spirit of the gang"), the child knows much better than the teacher what is good for him; and, as everybody knows, it is the bad boys that have the real stuff in them. Everybody knows, too, that teachers as a class are a set of blockheads; "it is no idle charge that teachers do not know what they are trying to do." "The racial and social instincts are exhaustless storage-batteries of nervous energy, and"—but this should be enough.

"Problems of Educational Readjustment" (Houghton Mifflin), by Dr. David Snedden, Massachusetts Commissioner of Education, is a clear and effective presentation mainly of the problems of liberal versus vocational education. Dr. Snedden knows what he means and has the gift of stating the issues simply. The distinction between the logical and natural methods of introducing a subject is neatly put by saying that the logical method is that of the adult mind. Hence, the logical method is not rejected as pedagogically meaningless. His position is that, while the "fundamental principles" of grammar or science, or what not, are barren as a method of approach—which must be based upon some concrete and natural interest—they represent the form of organization at which we must aim. Education is then a gradual substitution of logical and scientific categories for natural. This Aristotelian compromise reflects his general educational attitude. The essence of liberal education is to be found in the conception of man as a user; vocational education looks only to the producer. Much that he points out in this connection is instructive—for example, the contrast between the relatively barren results of the conventional musical education, which aims at proficiency of execution in the few, and the neglected possibilities of musical appreciation in the many. Yet we may wonder whether, in his emphasis upon "democracy" and "citizenship" as fields of life and en-

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joyment, he has appreciated the full scope and import of the citizenship implied in a truly *liberal* culture. Otherwise, why question the importance of Greek life and literature? In the matter of liberal and vocational education Dr. Snedden again seeks the best possible combination, but his main point is that, however combined, the two forms of education are in idea and method radically different and should never be confused. Manual training and like things have indeed a place in liberal culture; they stand for a broadening of experience and of sympathies; hence, they should be taught from this point of view rather than from that of technical proficiency. But in vocational training the academic point of view should be replaced by that of the workshop, with workshop hours, rules, and clothes. Above all, the work should be actually productive and the product as far as possible salable. Otherwise we miss the most important element in vocational training, which, as Dr. Snedden thinks, is the discipline of really productive work. We may doubt if the point has been better stated.

ENGLISH.

By all means the most significant contribution to rhetorical study in a great while is Prof. W. T. Brewster's addition to the Home University Library, entitled "Writing English Prose" (Holt). Indeed, it would be hard to imagine anything more illuminating—so perfectly does it mirror the vices and follies inherent in the present system of teaching rhetoric as a practical art, or, one might say, handicraft. In the ingratiating tone commonly assumed by writers on the subject, Professor Brewster begins by assuring the anxious reader that there "is no cause for alarm," since the study of literary composition is "simply the human process of making more intelligible or more interesting or more persuasive what you are going to write or what you have written." Alas, that it should be impossible in anything short of the original compass to do justice to the manner in which Professor Brewster addresses himself to the solution of this simple problem! All that can be done is to illustrate his exemplary perspicuity of statement and charm of style. "Narration," we are told among other matters, "is engaged in salting down what has happened or is imagined to have happened and is primarily engaged in looking for new events to salt down," while "exposition is striving to place new ideas, concepts, inventions, etc., in the cold storage of reality." Nor shall we readily forget the touching and beautiful figure of the Renaissance "as having turned up its toes and being laid out for decent burial," or of the thesis of a composition as "the fork or spit which toasts the facts before the fire of genius."

These, however, are but minor graces. The most characteristic thing about Professor Brewster's book is the absence of anything like a solid intellectual content. Take a subject like argumentation, which has been thoroughly systematized in the course of centuries and whose classifications might be made an occasion of mental discipline. And the same remark is true of figures of speech. And yet under the former head there is nothing more than a loose and rambling discussion; while this latter does not even appear in the *index*. But why *continue*? The book is a sad one; what value it has is due to the reflections it suggests. There is one, indeed, which seems vital to this whole matter. After all, the basis of expression is the sentence; that is fundamental. But of the other units of discourse so called, which modern composition has spent so much of its time working up, it may be questioned whether they are not more or less artificial and factitious in the form in which they have come to be presented today. At all events, it is in sentences that we actually write. Now a sentence is only the formulation of a judgment, and as a result the "art" of writing consists at bottom in the ability to form judgments. There is no way of getting around this difficulty; a piece of writing is worth just as much as the judgments included in it—no more. No amount of talk about language or composition, no amount of exhortation or ingratiation on the part of the instructor can take the place of judgment in the writer. Hence the absurdity of the modern rhetoric, which light-heartedly engages to make writers, regardless of mental immaturity and indiscipline. And not only the college student—almost everybody is in that plight nowadays. Wherefore this pother about composition, since in an abeyance of thought expression must always become a matter of tremendous anxiety. On the other hand, this was the advantage of what we have come to speak of as the old education; it had very little to say about original production, but it did do something for the student's judgment finally; it knew nothing about composition, but it had some notion of intellectual discipline, and in training the student's judgment it did at the same time prepare him to write.

Among recent reading books and texts there are several which deserve attention. "The Golden Deed Book" (Macmillan) is a rather interesting volume, from the fact that its selections are chosen, first of all, for the moral instruction they are supposed to convey more or less indirectly. As in so many of these readers, the range of choice is rather broad, embracing such titles as Wordsworth's "The World Is Too Much with Us," Markham's "The Man with the Hoe," and William Finnemore's "The Boy and the Cigarette." But on the whole, it is instructive to see how representative the collection is of the best modern English literature and how persistently that literature seems to have founded itself on moral ideas. "The Riverside Readers" (Houghton Mifflin), the seventh and the eighth of which are now issued, have a certain originality of plan. Besides the ordinary reading matter, they include a "study of authors," which consists of a biographical sketch of some writer by the editors, followed by a set of characteristic and appropriate extracts. In this manner each volume introduces the pupil to the life and the work of six or more important authors, American and English.

For advanced reading H. S. Murch's edition of Carlyle's "Hero-Worship" (Heath) is a conscientious piece of work. It contains a sufficient introduction with enough of the ordinary critical comment for its purpose, and is adequately provided with notes. In his edition of "Robinson Crusoe" (Scott, Foresman), W. T. Hastings seems to have taken extraordinary pains with the text for this sort of work and has published in the back a collation of several of the early editions. The volume is introduced by a life of Defoe, together with some remarks on his place as a writer. The appendix contains Steele's account of Selkirk and Capt. Rogers's narrative of his rescue.

"Matter, Form, and Style" (Dutton), by Hardress O'Grady, is an interesting little book for several reasons. It is designed as "a manual of practice in the writing of English composition," and is aimed in the first instance at a British audience. To what lengths the teaching of original expression is now carried, abroad as at home, becomes evident from a few of the exercises in the handbook. In his own instruction Mr. O'Grady believes it "more human and humane to get first the creative act and then shape the thing created." To this end presumably he recommends, among other things, as admirable practice for the student the making of sonnets on set subjects; such as, "a wave coming in and rising to its crest (octave) and then breaking smoothly round (sestet)." He also assigns a series of triolets on such themes as "the dog is jumping up at the cat, who is furious." And yet in spite of these extravagances the book is not wanting in shrewd and suggestive remarks. Style, for example, is defined as sincerity; and there is a certain illumination in the antithesis of classic and democratic literature. The difficulty is that such matters are incidental to the purpose and require for their appreciation the possession of the very faculties that they are intended to cultivate.

CLASSICS.

Prof. J. C. Egbert's edition of "Livy, Book XXI, with Selections from Books XXII-XXX" (Macmillan) is an elementary college textbook designed to present the most important episodes in the Second Punic war in one volume. There is a very brief introduction, which hardly deserves the name. The meagre commentary contains the necessary historical information combined with elementary syntactical and linguistical notes and a large amount of translation. On the assumption that a college freshman needs a very elementary book, this edition is excellent, but if, after four years' high-school training, such an edition is still necessary, the high-school instruction must fail of its purpose.

Our supply of introductory Latin books has been increased by the "Elements of Latin" (Heath), by B. C. Smith, and the "Latin Ladder" (Macmillan), by R. W. Tunstall. Both of these books are by teachers of long experience who try to embody here the secret of their success. Neither book shows any striking novelties of method, and both ignore the recent agitation in favor of more "direct" teaching. In the "Elements of Latin" we find the order of the grammar followed in the presentation of the forms, as Professor Bennett advocates, and almost all syntax excluded until the forms have been mastered. The exercises consist of detached forms and sentences nearly equally divided between Latin and English, while connected stories are deferred until the twenty-fifth lesson. In the "Latin Ladder," on the other hand, we have the piecemeal presentation of forms, with verbs and nouns alternating, only three cases, nominative, genitive, and accusative, being given in the first twenty-one lessons. Syntax is introduced

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early and systematically developed, while connected stories of the history of Rome are introduced as early as the tenth lesson. A neat device of review questions at frequent intervals keeps the student stimulated, and a great deal of attention is paid to the mastery of vocabulary, the words being assembled in convenient lists. In external appearance the books differ radically. The "Elements of Latin" shows an open, pleasing page, while the "Latin Ladder" is closely printed, and encumbered with footnotes. This packed appearance is due largely to the presence of much unnecessary "talk" to the pupil. This is wholly lacking in the other book. Both books are good, but the "Latin Ladder" shows a surer grasp of recent theories of teaching as well as a more exact acquaintance with syntactical progress.

A "Latin Reader for Beginners" (American Book Company), by F. A. Gallup, comprises the familiar old fables, a few simplified short stories, also well known, with various tales of early Rome adapted from Livy and a few odds and ends. The very elementary notes are at the bottom of the page, while a vocabulary gives further assistance. The collection is not uninteresting and may serve a useful purpose.

A more advanced book, "Sight Reading in Latin" (Ginn), has been prepared by H. H. Bice. The pupil is supposed to have read two books of Cæsar and the material here offered is somewhat more than the equivalent of books iii and iv, required by the New York State syllabus. Some introductory selections from Gellius, Pliny, Cicero, Livy, and Nepos lead up to the selections from Cæsar, which are chosen from the "Civil War" and books iii-vii of the "Gallic War." A serious attempt is made to teach vocabulary systematically, as well as the peculiarities of word-order, and the absence of a vocabulary emphasizes the word "sight" in the title. The book is carefully planned and ought to be welcomed by teachers as a rational attempt to develop systematically the power to read at sight.

Messrs. H. F. Scott and C. H. Van Tuyl have followed up their "Cæsar Composition Book" (1910) with a "Cicero Composition Book" (Scott, Foresman & Co.). This is, like the former, frankly a drill-book, the exercises consisting of detached sentences based on the Latin read, but grouped to illustrate particular syntactical constructions. The explanations show in general the influence of Professor Hale and often err on the side of minute distinction, but the plan is good and the material well chosen. A selection of recent college entrance examinations is added for testing purposes.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

In his "Graded French Method" (Holt) Prof. W. F. Giese, of the University of Wisconsin, starts from the principle that in the study of foreign languages reading should from the beginning hold the central place instead of grammar. His own particular way of fusing reading and grammar is a highly original application of the old pedagogic maxim: *repetitio mater memoriæ*. In each of the twenty-two graded chapters he begins by an effective statement of a certain amount of grammatical theory, and then illustrates this theory, not by disconnected sentences, but by three "readings," in very fluent and idiomatic French (the first two narratives, the third usually a dialogue), in all of which the same vocabulary appears. This is followed in turn by a "drill" for oral as well as written use, and by passages for rendering into French, also connected and based in vocabulary on parts of the previous "readings." "Thus," says Professor Giese, "in the reading-matter of the fourth chapter, the student will meet nearly two hundred regular present-tense verb-forms, in the fifth chapter as many imperfects, in the twelfth as many partitives, etc. . . . In combining this insistent repetition of given elements of grammar with the equally insistent repetition of a given vocabulary, I have had to reproduce, not once but several dozen times, the performance of the ingenious Arab who arranged overnight a thousand random words so as to impose on them meaning and logical sequence (it is added that his hair turned white in the process)." The remarkable fact is that in spite of the formidable obstacles imposed by his system of multiple repetition the author contrives to be light and entertaining. One is inclined, indeed, to wonder that a person capable of so much wit and ingenuity should deign to write grammars at all. The staider type of teacher and student will no doubt be disconcerted by the constant irony with which Professor Giese treats persons and things usually accounted respectable—for example, German doctoral dissertations, women's clubs, humanitarians, and Victor Hugo—and will set him down as a cynic; but even they can scarcely fail to be amused. On the whole, the book strikes one as an unusually successful attempt to sugarcoat the grammatical pill, and should receive careful trial, especially in first-year college classes.

Martin Schmidhofer's "Erstes Lesebuch für amerikanische Schulen" (Heath) is intended for children who are fortunate enough to begin the study of German early. Those who come naturally by some knowledge of the language can presumably use the book to the best advantage. An admirable spirit pervades it. Besides appropriate anecdotes, it includes many riddles and poems and some well-selected songs with music.

"German for Beginners" (Holt), by Eduard Prokosch, is a manual in three parts: Texts, Exercises and Lessons, and a Synopsis of Grammar—the whole preceded by a good Introduction on pronunciation. The Exercises and Lessons, printed concurrently on opposite pages, are based upon the Texts, and furnish material for practice in German and for drill in grammatical forms; in other words, for inductive teaching, supplemented by the learning of paradigms. The Synopsis serves the purposes of reference and review. The texts are intelligently chosen, and the pedagogical elaboration of them is thorough. The book contains sufficient material for at least a year.

It is to be regretted that E. C. Hills and S. G. Morley, in compiling their anthology of "Modern Spanish Lyrics" (Holt), did not limit their field to the nineteenth century; for if they have aimed at providing a handbook enabling the student to trace the history of the Spanish lyric from the fifteenth century down, they have failed of their purpose. Obviously, the twenty pages devoted to the period prior to the eighteenth century give the student no adequate conception of the development of the lyric through the ages, and might better have been omitted. One notes with surprise the omission of names like Boscan, Garcilaso de la Vega, and Gongora in a collection which includes a *Canción* of the Portuguese Gil Vicente, a writer principally noted as a dramatist. Certainly Garcilaso is the greatest lyric poet of the period in question; and while the editors may be justified in their hostility to Gongorism from the æsthetic point of view, the historic importance of the euphuistic movement is so great that at least one specimen of a poem written in that manner should have been included. The criterion of selection seems to have been a desire to include only those poems which would be likely to interest the student. But it may well be questioned whether modern mediocrities should be preferred to classic authors, merely to humor indifferent students. The nineteenth century is fully and adequately treated. The foremost Spanish poets of the century just past are all well represented. In addition, selections are given from the leading poets of Argentina, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Venezuela. The highest praise that can be meted out to these facile rhymesters is that their output compares favorably with that of the mother country. There is to be noted the same melodious flow of words expressing the same shallowness of thought. In their notes, the editors have been accurate, scholarly, and as copious as space permitted. The introductory treatise is superior to any similar study in English. The history of Spanish lyric poetry is a short, convenient guide for the beginner, and remarkably free from error. The publishers deserve especial credit for the handsome form in which they have issued this textbook.

Teachers of Spanish grammar will welcome Prof. E. S. Ingraham's excellent "Brief Spanish Grammar" (Heath), a revision of Edgren's once popular, but now almost obsolete, textbook. Professor Ingraham, while retaining many excellent features of the original, has wisely omitted much superfluous philological material which only served to bewilder the beginner. His aim has been practical and pedagogic. The whole course is comprised in thirty-eight lessons, and the study of verb forms is completed in lesson eleven. The vocabulary is well chosen rather than extensive; the exercises consist of simple sentences. While in no sense a grammar of reference, the book is a valuable first aid to beginners.

HISTORY.

Most American histories have been written from the political and constitutional point of view, a large proportion have shown strong national or sectional bias, and a considerable number, especially in recent years, have attempted to treat our national annals as a confirmation of particular schools of the philosophy of history. Prof. J. P. Bassett's "Short History of the United States" (Macmillan) belongs to the very small minority which escape inclusion under any one of these heads. He has given just and well-proportioned emphasis to social, economic, and military factors as well as to political. A Southern man with Northern education and resi-

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dence, he has held the balance remarkably even between the sections. He has deliberately and successfully avoided the extreme and the doctrinaire. Keeping in mind his purpose to explain the early history of the United States, he has not allowed himself, in describing the colonial period, to be over-influenced by the recent and able writers who stress the theory that colonial history should be regarded primarily as a part of English history. The difficult problem of selection and elimination of super-abundant material has been skilfully handled. The writer has preferred to give adequate accounts of the topics chosen for treatment rather than to include all items for which frequent mention in earlier works has created a tradition of historical importance. Accuracy of a high degree characterizes the book. The style, though not brilliant, is clear and terse, occasionally a little stilted, but on the whole well adapted to historical narrative. It is perhaps asking too much in a work which frankly relies upon other investigations for much of its material to expect satisfactory treatment of the first half of the eighteenth century. Its history has not been adequately written by earlier historians, and it remains in this work the *neglected period*. The national period is, on the whole, handled with a surer and a firmer grasp than the colonial.

Prof. Hutton Webster's "Ancient History" (Heath) will be acceptable to the teachers who think that military and political affairs have had too large, and social and cultural affairs too small, a place in our historical textbooks. It draws liberally from the wealth of information which recent excavations in Oriental and classical lands have made available. Of the 639 pages of text, fully 300 are given to describing manners, institutions, art, literature, and other phases of civilization. Archæology is explained, both as to methods and as to results, and there is a wholesome critical spirit in the treatment of tradition, whether it be Oriental, Hebraic, or classic. The style is pleasing, as it should be in an elementary textbook, and the narrative is not overburdened with details. There are many useful illustrations, and the index is adequate. Much praise must be given, also, to the bibliographical suggestions. The large amount of attention given to antiquities and life necessarily shortens that which can be devoted to history in the older sense. If we must have in one textbook all that the author has felt impelled to treat in this book, probably no better distribution of space could be made; but it is a question if the pupil would not have a more vivid, and consequently a more permanent, mental picture of what he is expected to know if the subject-matter were taken in smaller assignments treated on a larger scale. It is not essential that a high-school student should acquire a knowledge of all history from its beginning to the death of Charlemagne, even in outline. It would be better if he knew the significance of Greece and Rome as contributors to later history, and knew them so fully that he would have a reasonably clear and warm consciousness of the Grecian and Roman spirit.

A new edition of Professor McLoughlin's "History of the American Nation" (Appleton) brings the narrative down to the inauguration of Woodrow Wilson. Much of the original text has been changed. The author's facility of clear presentation, which has made his book a favorite in many schools, is maintained, spite of much condensation in the recent period of his history.

SCIENCE.

The rapidity in the change of attitude towards the teaching of mathematics is emphasized by the "Calculus" (privately printed) of Professors Franklin, MacNutt, and Charles, of Lehigh University. The calculus, as here treated, is a means to express the principles of physics and engineering. Little effort is made to develop the subject as a branch of pure mathematics, to insist on rigorous deductions, or to train the student to solve formal problems. The authors are convinced "that it is a pedagogical mistake, in a textbook on calculus for young men, to break the thread of the textual discussion by unnecessary algebraic developments and by large and frequent groups of purely formal problems." So the formal problems are collected in an appendix where some ingenuity will be required to find them. A textbook by Professor Franklin is sure to be original and interesting. He has also the faculty of seeing problems clearly and solving them simply. As an aid to students who desire to know the applications of the calculus to physics, no better text could be found, but we cannot help wondering how they will get the ability to solve problems after they understand the principles. Mathematicians have rather stubbornly refused to teach mathematics except as an end in itself, or to shorten their courses by fusing more or less together such related subjects as geometry, trigonometry, and algebra. Whether their method is the best is open to question, but they are correct when they maintain that a rigid course in mathematics, with persistent practice in the art of solving problems, is essential to the training of the physicist and the engineer. We have never been able to develop a school of theoretical physics and engineering in this country, largely because our students do not have a training which puts the technique of mathematics at their fingers' ends. It is still to be proved that it is not better to let mathematicians teach the theory and art of their subject and to require the physicist and the engineer to teach its applications. With the present scheme, our college students seem increasingly unable to deal with mathematical problems.

A rather useful book on "Electric Arcs" (Van Nostrand) has been prepared by Prof. Clement D. Child. The treatment is elementary, but a fairly good descriptive text of the theory and applications of the arc is given.

The third and concluding book of "The Silver-Burdett Arithmetics" has been issued by the press of that company. The plan of this arithmetic is similar to that of the first two parts, which have been reviewed in these columns.

Two new books, "School Algebra" and "Academic Algebra" (Ginn), have been added to the well-known and popular Wentworth-Smith Mathematical Series.

Prof. Alfred Monroe Kenyon and Louis Ingold have written a "Trigonometry" (Macmillan). The book follows the modern method of teaching mathematics by its practical applications. The text is short, but the tables are unusually full and are conveniently arranged.

Whenever Prof. J. M. Coulter, of the University of Chicago, prepares a treatise for the use of students of botany, he is sure to make it well proportioned and clear. Careful examination of his latest venture, "Elementary Studies in Botany" (Appleton), shows that he has kept both of these points constantly in mind. But let no purchaser be misled by the title into thinking that this volume is a primer in words of one syllable. It is a comprehensive and straightforward statement of the essentials of modern botany, with a definite object kept constantly in view, namely, of introducing the beginner without loss of time into that part of the field of botany which borders upon horticulture and agriculture. This introduction to what may be called practical botany is accomplished without the employment of unnecessary technical terms or conceptions. Therefore the volume is not only useful, but is readable and interesting.

"Agronomy" (Ginn), by Willard N. Clute, is an excellent treatment of this department of farming. Being limited to the study of plant production, it can be used to advantage in city or town as well as in country schools. It is adapted to high-school pupils, but has the advantage of being simple in both language and plan. Many of its illustrations are new, which is not always the case with textbooks, and all of them are to the point. The book is practical, and can be recommended.

Animal husbandry, the complementary department of farming, is treated in "Animal Husbandry for Schools" (Macmillan), by Merritt W. Harper. The extent of this subject, the need of many tables of figures for the study of rations, and the widely different animals that must be included, make the writing of such a book difficult. Mr. Harper's is compact and clear, is thoroughly illustrated, and by its laboratory and class exercises is properly fitted for use in high or agricultural schools.

In the same Rural Textbook series, published by Macmillan, "Farm Management," by G. F. Warren, offers to farmers a complete and very timely handbook on a subject which in future must be more and more considered. The problem of successful farming was never more pressing or more difficult than now, and every aid which science offers should be at the service of our agriculturists. Whether to farm at all, and, if so, how, where, and by means of what equipment, how to market, and how to keep accounts, are questions examined by Mr. Warren in an interesting and suggestive, but also a very trustworthy, book.

In "Animal Geography, the Faunas of the Natural Regions of the Globe" (Frowde), Marion I. Newbigin attempts to set before the geographical student the main facts which relate to the distribution of animals. This subject is in direct line with the trend of modern evolutionary study, and offers a large field of intensely interesting research. The present volume is evidently intended for the uninformed layman or the beginning student. The facts are obviously given at second hand, but have been drawn from trustworthy sources. The chapters deal successively with the fauna of tundras, coniferous forests, steppes, mountains, tropical forests, deserts, islands,

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the sea, lakes, rivers, and caves. No effort has been made to reproduce any realism or the atmosphere of the respective zones, and comparatively little correlation among the facts themselves, so that steady reading is but dull work. The best sections are those dealing with the tundras and the tropical forests. If something of the spirit of Gosse or Renshaw had permeated the text, the "student" would take more joy in his work and the subject would appeal to a much wider circle of general readers.

A wholesome innovation is the correction of wrong popular names, as prong-buck for prong-horned "antelope," and prairie marmot for prairie "dog." It is a case of the mote in the brother's eye, however, for in the European names such nomenclatural purity is not always maintained. The title of the chapter on steppes is misleading, as it treats in addition of prairies, pampas, and deserts. The paragraphs on arboreal adaptation of organisms to life in the tropical forest are excellent and should have been the pattern of treatment held to throughout. Most of the illustrations are photographs of mounted museum specimens which show the structural adaptations fairly well; there are in addition Himalayan and other views. It is difficult to speculate why such impressionistic paintings as that of the snow leopard were admitted. A brief outline classification of animals forms an appendix for "readers who are not well acquainted with modern zoölogy," but such an audience should have been attracted by more entertainment in the main body of the book. The index is inadequate and of use only for referring to the various organisms as such, and not in relation to their distribution. As encyclopædia articles these chapters would be admirable, but as a bound animal geography they leave much to be desired, and for either comprehensive views or detailed reference one had better turn to Wallace or to Scharff.

Literature

STATESMAN AND GENTLEMAN.

The Windham Papers: The Life and Correspondence of the Rt. Hon. William Windham, 1750-1810. With an Introduction by the Earl of Rosebery. 33 portraits. Two vols. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $10 net.

"Why may not the life of Windham be written by his letters?" asked a writer in 1831. To-day, a century after the statesman's death, a conscientious editor, whose identity is not evident, shows that a life can be so written very successfully. The editor has limited himself to the briefest kind of explanatory comment, mostly relegated to footnotes and not always quite accurate. Windham is an especially good subject for a biography of this kind, for he himself was a writer of very unusual charm and he was the constant recipient of familiar letters from such eminent and interesting persons as George III, Burke, Fox, Pitt, the Grenvilles, Cobbett, Hazlitt, Dr. Johnson, Dr. Burney, Mrs. Siddons, and many others.

The Windham Papers, which were acquired by purchase by the British Museum in 1909, and from which the bulk of the material here published is drawn, comprise ninety-four volumes, almost all of which, with the exception of the Windham-Burke letters, have never before been printed. They are of considerable historical value, not only as a mine of information concerning Windham himself, but also as throwing light upon English domestic politics and foreign policy during the French Revolution and Empire. About 1782, when past thirty, Windham also began to keep a somewhat sentimental and introspective diary—"My confidential book; in this will be contained all those thoughts, memorandums, notes, reflexions, &c., which no eye must see but my own." By the time of his death this intimate journal swelled to fourteen large volumes, and affords an exact, though painful, picture of Windham's character. It also reveals why it was that he did not achieve more in public life. It is full of vacillation and endless agitations on the smallest activities of daily life. He seemed to worry himself with his pen. Lord Rosebery thinks it would have been better for Windham's reputation if some judicious friend had put the whole diary behind the fire. Lord Holland and Charles Greville have intimated that parts of it could not with decorum be made public. All this may be true; but if the editor was wise to publish any of it—and we think he was—he would have been wiser to publish more.

William Windham was, according to the universal testimony of all those who knew him, a man of very unusual personal charm. In conversation, where he was at his best, he could be earnest, playful, and eloquent. He had the attractive faculty of appearing to give his very best to the persons with whom he was conversing, and the spell of his fascination was complete. Even Dr. Johnson admitted him, when a mere country gentleman of twenty-eight, to his famous club, and, in his declining days, to his bedside. "Such conversation," wrote the dying sage, "I shall not have again till I come back to the regions of literature; and there Windham is *inter stellas luna minores*." On Windham he bestowed a Greek Testament, with his views on religion and with injunctions for the protection of his faithful servant, Frank.

Windham was a man of bodily vigor. Like the Greeks he loved youth, beauty, and manly exercises. His own many-sidedness was Greek-like, and quite in harmony with his genuine love and knowledge of the classics. He had the robust old English liking for boxing, and was known in his youth as "Fighting Windham." In advanced years, when he could no longer put on the gloves himself, he often attended the matches of others, and the technical comments in his diary show that he looked on with the eye of an expert as well as of an enthusiast. He once started on a voyage to discover the North-West Passage, but at Bergen gave it over on account of sea-sickness. In 1785 he wrote: "From the moment of my hearing of balloons"—which were as much a novelty and a danger in his age as monoplanes in our own—"I felt, in common I believe with every other man of the smallest imagination, the wish of adventuring in one." He therefore speedily made his will, wrote out a confession of his religious faith, and procured his balloon. Burke wrote banteringly:

> Adieu, Star triumphant, and some pity show
> On us poor battlers militant below.
>
> I think you are the first rational being that has taken flight. What time will you receive the congratulations of your Terrestrial Friends on your return to Mortality?

Windham's own comment in his diary is very characteristic:

> Much satisfied with myself; and, in consequence of that satisfaction, dissatisfied with my adventure. Could I have foreseen that danger or apprehension would have made so little impression on me, I would have deferred going till we had a wind favourable for crossing the Channel.

We quite agree with Lord Rosebery in hazarding the opinion that Windham was a flirt. He gave young ladies volumes with dedications in pedestrian verse of his own making. He chided his friend Cholmondeley for lightly engaging the affections of Miss Cecilia Forrest, whom he married himself with singular secrecy thirteen years later, and yet he himself had been similarly engaging the affections of a daughter of Sir Philip Francis; a lady endeavoring to console the unhappy girl told her that Windham had long hesitated between Miss Forrest and a devoted widow. He was also welcome in the evening by the fireside of the beautiful Mrs. Siddons, and he wrote intimate and affectionate letters to Mrs. Crewe; he even records his agitation on meeting her the first time after his own marriage. But his flirtations were rather the result of his conversational fascination and whimsical nature; they were, in Lord Rosebery's phrase, "unconscious, innocent, and honorable."

In public life Windham was "not a strict party man," not a very hard worker, and not very ambitious—three serious defects in any one who wishes to attain leadership in politics. He entered Parliament from Norwich in 1784 as a Whig; accepted an office in Pitt's Tory Cabinet from 1794 to 1801; went into the Opposition and was intimate with Radicals like Fox and Cobbett un-

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til in 1806 he again accepted office under Lord Grenville as Secretary of State for War, in the Administration derisively known as the "Ministry of All the Talents." This apparent political fickleness, which led him to be called by turns a Foxite, a Pittite, and a Grenvillite, was, however, more apparent than real, and more creditable than censurable. It sprang from his strong independence of mind, and the fact that he preferred freedom of opinion and action to party regularity. As an independent, and as a follower of Burke, who exercised a great influence on his mind, Windham naturally favored many things in the programme of each of the two great parties, and he made no secret of his opinions. He was the enthusiastic advocate of Roman Catholic Emancipation, but the bitter enemy of the French Republic and the unflinching opponent of parliamentary reform; he slew one Reform Bill, as with a smooth stone from a brook, by saying effectively: "No one would select the hurricane season in which to begin repairing his house." As Secretary for War for seven years under Pitt, sharing the duties of the office with Dundas, Windham exercised an important influence upon England's conduct of the war against France, for Pitt was not a military man; "I distrust extremely any ideas of my own on military subjects," he wrote to Windham in 1794. Windham was personally present for a time with the English army in the Netherlands, and had the courage to write Pitt firmly of his own conviction of the utter incompetence of the Duke of York as commander-in-chief. This was a difficult and delicate duty, for he was fond of the Duke and had received much kindness and confidence from him. It was an especially embarrassing matter to recall the Duke just at this time, as he had been forced to a series of retreats, and recall would look like official censure for failure. Pitt, however, took the hint, and the recall was soon arranged in a way which hurt no feelings, but which relieved the army of the incubus of an inept commander. Windham carried on an extensive correspondence with the French royalists, and was the man chiefly responsible for the sending of the ill-fated expedition to Quiberon. But in fairness to him it should be added that it was not Windham's plan which was responsible for this failure, but the folly and cowardice of the French émigrés, to whom he entrusted the execution of the plan. During his years at the War Office he attempted some reforms in the service, "but the few pebbles which he left on the shore of military history scarcely constitute a memorial cairn."

Of the letters to Windham which are here printed perhaps the most interesting to American readers is the sixteen-page letter of June 1, 1793, written from Philadelphia by some unidentified French royalist. It is a survey of the political men, parties, and conditions in the "Unitate States" from the point of view of an intelligent foreigner, written "in English to prevent you to read a bad French hand."

CURRENT FICTION.

The House of Thane. By Elizabeth Dejeans. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

"Missouri's my State, and I don't want a better," declares this hero who had found money in oil in half a dozen Western States, but who could never fulfil his dream of founding his house and perpetuating his name outside of St. Louis. The author is equally free from any dread of provinciality, and her story of the American money-maker, his wife, his mistress, and the woman he should have married gains immeasurably by its flavor of local speech (something very distinct from dialect), and from the unpremeditated snatches of description in which she communicates her familiarity with the Missouri metropolis and the California oil fields.

The plot contains many situations that are tritely sensational and sentimental; an adored son is proved illegitimate and an unselfish mistress disembarrasses her lover by going off to die alone. Yet the story puts in a clear light many of the wrongs that men and women do each other in unions not founded on mutual love and respect. The extent to which the barbarous assumption that money can purchase the rights of love still persists in the mind and common practice of "the money-making animal" is disclosed with considerable shrewdness, though without any trace of cynical intention. For many reasons the book is more likely to appeal to the untutored appetite for fiction than to a highly cultivated taste. For one thing, it is carelessly written, and many of its clumsily contrived phrases make rough reading for those who value verbal niceties. For another, the characters might almost be dismissed as conventionalized types, were it not for the perspective of emotional history that opens up behind each of these figures.

Courtin' Christina. By J. J. Bell. New York: George H. Doran Co.

Those popular favorites, Wee MacGreegor and Christina, now appear in conjunction. MacGreegor has been at his chosen trade of "pentin'" for some years; Christina is the assistant and mainstay of a vague old-maid dealer in "stationery and fancy goods." MacGreegor has had his youthful amours, but the sight of Christina in a red blouse blots them out forever. The courtship which ensues is as quaint as would be expected of the amusing pair. Christina is a canny soul, and the means by which she causes him to abandon his pentin' for a career of greater promise are as old and as solid as the hills. The atmosphere of Caledonian humor in which the narrative is steeped need not be analyzed for readers who are familiar with this author's knack.

WO_2. By Maurice Drake. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The mysterious letters that form the title of this book the reader guesses at once to be a chemical formula, but he guesses many times before he discovers what the strange mercantile company is doing with the material thus designated, which it is importing from Holland to England. In fact, this is a detective story in which the amateur sleuth is a character whom Mr. Locke might have created, and in which the events unroll with a zest of ludicrous surprise worthy, almost, of Mr. Birmingham's "Spanish Gold." Most of the action takes place on the sea, and the talk is of a salty flavor wondrously learned and quite delightful to a landsman. It is not often that detective work, vagabond adventure, and love-making are more pleasantly mingled.

Murder in Any Degree. By Owen Johnson. New York: The Century Co.

Mr. Johnson, whose "Stover at Yale" brought him into the field, is making hay while the sun shines—hay of somewhat uneven quality. The tales in this collection show more versatility than seriousness. The title story is the best of the lot, from the serious point of view, a study of marriage versus art. "One Hundred in the Dark" handles a confessedly trite situation in a novel way; it is the kind of yarn which stands or falls by its "thrill." "A Comedy for Wives" deals with another ancient situation in a forced and vulgar fashion. Mr. Johnson's humor is not his strong point. He should reserve it for such material as that of "Even Threes," a golfing tale of unusual merit.

LITERARY LONDON.

London in English Literature. By Percy H. Boynton. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. $2 net.

"No, sir," declared Dr. Johnson, "when a man is tired of London, he is tired of life; for there is in London all that life can afford." Mr. Percy Boynton, American though he is, would, we fancy, be tempted to subscribe to the Doctor's axiom. At any rate, his interest in London is so keen that he has been able to find, if not a new, at least a different angle from which to view and describe the city. While, as he says in his preface, "nothing is included in the volume which cannot be easily traced by refer-

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ence to standard works on London and obvious sources of literature," we have to admit his claim that the exact method and purpose of the present book have, so far as we can recall, never been anticipated. Mr. Boynton has set himself to reproduce, in chronological order, the contemporary atmosphere of successive literary periods in the history of London, and the principal value of his achievement, as he intended it should be, is in its suggestiveness.

The book is written primarily for the student of English literature—doubtless it is the outcome of Mr. Boynton's experiences with his own students—and we shall be guilty of no disrespect towards the author if we liken his work to the tempting *hors d'œuvre* that whets the appetite for the more solid repast. There are a dozen topics touched on and passed by concerning which we would desire more information, or would wish to join issue; but it is atmosphere with which Mr. Boynton is concerned, and when with a few bold strokes he has indicated how men lived and moved and thought in a given period he is ready to pass on to the next picture. As a sop to our curiosity, or more probably as an ingenious bait for those students at whom he is constantly looking out of the tail of his eye, to each chapter he appends a brief catalogue of "illustrative readings," works, modern and contemporary, which will throw further light upon the figures and events which he has only adumbrated.

Mr. Boynton has done what he set out to do so extremely well that one is tempted to wish that the limitations he imposed on himself had not been quite so rigid. Even at the cost of slightly increasing the scope of the book, the topography of the city in the various periods described might advantageously have been dealt with in greater detail. In this connection, too, it is unfortunate that the maps and plans included in the volume are reproduced on too small a scale to be of great value. On the other hand, it must be recorded that Mr. Boynton has been singularly successful in avoiding the "sketchiness" and lack of cohesion which are liable to be the faults of a book of limited dimensions dealing with a wide subject. At the same time that he is directing our attention to particular aspects of his subject he never allows us to miss the synoptic view or to lose sight of the continuity of London in letters, in history, and even in topography. The transitions from one period to another, their co-relations and their contrasts, are very deftly suggested.

It is perhaps to be regretted that Mr. Boynton did not elect to close his book with the excellent chapter on "Victorian London." In writing in the final chapter of "Contemporary London" his perspective, as was perhaps inevitable, seems for the first time to be faulty, and in some of his observations he comes perilously near to the platitudinous. Curious mistakes on the part of an author usually extremely careful occur on page 199, where the Prince of Wales is described as the "Crown Prince," and on page 275, where Charles II is represented as the monarch who was condemned to death. The value of the book is enhanced by a discriminating selection of illustrations, ancient and modern, and by an excellent appendix of "illustrative novels."

Concordanza delle Rime di Francesco Petrarca. Compilata da Kenneth McKenzie. New Haven: Yale University Press. $10 net.

The completion of this volume, upon which Professor McKenzie has been engaged for several years, will be regarded as something of an event in scholarship, not only in this country but abroad. Italy, in particular, has reason to be grateful for the interest which Americans have shown in her best literature; for owing to their labors we now have concordances to the minor Italian works and the Latin works of Dante, to the "Divine Comedy," and to Petrarch's "Rime"—truly a notable achievement.

Although the influence of Petrarch has been known for a century and more to have been enormous, the use of Professor McKenzie's systematic lists can scarcely fail to add much which has escaped detection. Not only did Petrarch's language largely shape the procedure of Renaissance lyrics, it entered, in one way or another, into nearly every literary type which was used in that period; and his analysis of detached moments of life had its effect—indirectly, if we mistake not, even on the Romanticists. His relation to the lyric is in some ways more vital than that of Seneca to the drama, for not only did he catch up and hand on themes and attitudes of classic Greeks and Latins, but opened to art what must seem to moderns the closed systems of the troubadours and the *dolce stil nuovo*. So that through him, if allowance be made for a few later borrowings from ancient times, in particular a revival of Anacreontics and of Horace's calm reflective mood, the modern lyric appears like the outcome of a steady unbroken stream starting in antiquity. To grasp fully what Petrarch's writings meant to Europe is an important work for future scholarship, the preliminaries of which have been admirably accomplished by Professor McKenzie.

As the basis of his concordance Professor McKenzie has taken the text of Salvo-Cozzo (Florence, 1904), but he has constantly consulted the manuscripts of the Canzoniere in the Vatican Library which were rediscovered in 1886 and part of which proved to be in Petrarch's own hand. The absence until recently of a definitive edition has given rise among editors to great variations of arrangement and numbering of the poems; and to make his concordance widely serviceable, Professor McKenzie furnishes a comparative table of first lines, as recorded in such editions as those of Salvo-Cozzo, Mestica, Carducci and Ferrari, Soave, and Marsand. In a preface written in Italian the author fully explains the details of his system, which need not be described here more than to say that in general he has followed the methods adopted by Sheldon in the concordance to Dante's minor Italian works. All words, except the commonest particles, etc., are recorded, progressively, as they occur in the text; verbs are grouped under the infinitive, adjectives under the masculine singular, after the manner of a dictionary. In the case of the Trionfi the excellent text of Carl Appel (1901) has naturally been followed.

Only frequent use of this work can fully test its accuracy, but a somewhat searching experiment with it here and there by the reviewer has failed to disclose any mistakes of numbering or of printing.

Ellen Key. By Louise Nyström-Hamilton. Translated by A. E. B. Fries. With an Introduction by Havelock Ellis. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25 net.

Mrs. Nyström-Hamilton's biography of Ellen Key throws some desired light upon the personality of this interesting woman, though as a whole it is rather unsatisfactory as a study of character and in information meagre and vague. Of external events, as a matter of fact, there is little to record. Ellen Key (the name was originally the Scotch "Mac Kay") was born in 1849, of a race of squires and statesmen, and passed her childhood in the wholesome atmosphere of a country home. Later she spent her winters in Stockholm as the companion and secretary of her father, Emil Key, who was a member of the Riksdag. By 1880 Emil Key had spent his fortune in the interest of the Liberal party, and Ellen began a career of nineteen years as a high-school teacher. She had always been a student, and in 1882 she began to give public lectures, embracing a variety of subjects in history, sociology, and literature, before the People's Institute of Stockholm, which had been founded by the husband of her biographer. From this point dates her literary output, of which, it should be said, the discussion of sex relations forms a rather small part. It seems clear that she had no special ambition for publicity, and her prominence as a critic of the institution of marriage was in a measure provoked by the action of the authorities when, in 1889, four young men who had given expression to some crudely radical views concern-

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ing the marriage relation were imprisoned under an old statute against blasphemy. With no sympathy for their manner of expressing themselves, Ellen Key felt that their imprisonment was nevertheless a crime against freedom of speech; and in view of a general indifference she felt called to their defence.

Ellen Key is a single woman, and her biography records not so much as one "affair." Apparently, the philosopher of love has been too busy. Her biographer resents indignantly the "slanders" that have been heaped upon her; and her resentment is so far justified that no one who reads Ellen Key carefully could associate her with anything vulgar, however unconventional, though vulgar episodes may plausibly be referred to her for authority. Yet it is scarcely fair to scold an unenlightened public for supposing that "Miss Key lived as she preached," and on the other hand a defence of the champion of love's freedom by the standards of Mrs. Grundy seems a trifle irrelevant. Her biographer also resents the imputation that Ellen Key's insistence upon freedom in marriage represents the morbid preoccupation of an old maid. Rather, should we say—in spite of sixty years and a well-seasoned intellect—the uncalculating idealism of youth. For the practical fact about marriage seems to be that every marriage, however well founded in mutual sympathy, presents a problem. There are always some differences of temperament, become important through close association, between which compatibility is still to be effected. In Ellen Key's philosophy the possibility of creating compatibility plays no part, as, indeed, her biographer notes. Marriages are made in Heaven. Men and women are either compatible or incompatible, once for all; and when they are incompatible the marriage is to be dissolved.

It is then no surprise to learn from Mrs. Nyström-Hamilton that Ellen Key's writing is the fruit of intuition rather than of logic, and that she is even somewhat baffled by the requirements of grammatical construction. Her work is a curious combination of the naïve and the profound. It contains many passages hardly to be surpassed for virility and nobility of conception and for penetrating insight; and then again passages which, taken in themselves, seem to countenance a scandalous frivolity and libertinism. It seems clear that when Ellen Key writes she is absorbed in the thought of the moment and in the aspect of the question which is immediately before her, and it is left for the reader to find "the complementary contradiction and restriction" which would give her exact meaning. The effect of this upon the thoughtless and dissatisfied is likely to be demoralizing; but this will not permit us to deny that the writer herself is a high-minded woman whose personal sympathies are sound and wholesome.

Tibullus: The Corpus Tibullianum. Edited, with Introduction and Notes on Books I, II, and IV, ii-xiv, by Kirby Flower Smith. New York: American Book Co. $1.50.

It is a pleasure to acknowledge the debt which American classical scholarship owes to Professor Smith for this edition. We have here not only the first commentary in English upon the whole text of Tibullus, Sulpicia, and the anonymous elegies of the fourth book, but we have an edition which in minuteness of scholarship, sympathy and acuteness of interpretation, and extended knowledge of similar literature in other languages combines the excellencies of Earle's editions of Sophocles and Shorey's edition of Horace.

The most obvious criticism is on the form. As one of a series of school and college textbooks, it is restricted by various limitations of space and style, notably evident in the Introduction, which, though extensive (94 pages), still of necessity omits many important details of discussion. However, Professor Smith always sets forth his own views clearly and adequately, and the ample footnotes supply the bibliography necessary for verification. Then, too, the text, embracing the whole *corpus Tibullianum*, is printed solid (66 pages), while the critical variations are relegated to the Appendix. These should be more extensive and should appear at the bottom of the page. The same limitations of space have probably caused the omission of a commentary on the third book and the "Encomium Messallæ" (IV, i). It is true that these elegies are distinctly inferior to the genuine work, but the addition of a brief commentary on them would have made the book complete.

Professor Smith is not so much a textual critic, as a student of language and literature. These two characteristics dominate in the extensive commentary (344 pages). This is written for the university student and the student of comparative literature. Here are no futile "grammatical" notes intended for the young collegian, who still finds it difficult to construe, but such grammatical notes as find place are elaborate and exhaustive treatments of word meaning and syntactical phenomena, in which every available bit of information is cited and weighed. Many of these notes remind one of Mayor's commentary on Juvenal, without its irrelevancies. Parallels in ancient and modern literatures are lavishly quoted, as a rule in the language in which they are written, and to get the full benefit of the notes the reader must be familiar with French, German, and Italian, in addition to Latin and Greek. While Tibullus has had no such influence upon later literature as Horace and Virgil, it is remarkable how many real parallels are here collected.

Great interest centres in the Introduction, which treats of the Development of the Elegy, the Life of Tibullus, Later Tradition and Imitation, Criticism and Discussion, etc. The most important chapters are the first two. In the first the editor sketches the history of this most fascinating but elusive department of literature from its earliest appearance, when it seems already fully developed in all its moods, down to and beyond Tibullus, "to whom belongs the distinction of having given artistic perfection to the department on Roman ground." Owing to the many uncertainties due to the almost total loss of early Greek elegy, this discussion should have been much longer, for many students will not have ready access to many works cited in the footnotes. The chapter on the life of Tibullus furnishes an excellent example of literary criticism. Our external information regarding Tibullus is extremely scanty, while the references to himself in his poems are so vague and so inextricably interwoven with the inherited literary machinery of the elegy that nothing positive can be deduced. Here Professor Smith is at his best. His extensive studies in this department, his delicate humor, and his power of divination have enabled him to reconstruct a charming personality who, while a prominent figure in the literary circle of Messalla, was at the same time a much loved companion of Virgil and Horace.

History of the People of the United States. Volume VIII. By John Bach McMaster. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.50 net.

Thirty years have passed since Mr. McMaster began his "History of the People of the United States," the final volume of which now appears. He ends abruptly with the inauguration of Lincoln as President. The volumes of Rhodes continue the story, though after quite another method; and thus, for the first time, we have an elaborate history of the United States from 1789 to 1884. Channing has already covered the Colonial period, but with nothing like the same detail. A final chapter by McMaster, describing the general situation in 1860, and in the same form as his first chapter in the first volume, would have been interesting, if only to furnish a measure of his development during the progress of his work.

In that time a new school of historical writers has been trained. Mr. McMaster began to write soon after special departments in history and economics were established in our leading universities, the first effect of which was to

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show the essential defect in the work of the accepted writers of the time. He has been quite consistent in his methods, and from the beginning has placed his main reliance upon contemporary newspapers. From these he summarized state papers, political declarations, and the more obvious symptoms of social movement, selecting with judgment and combining with skill, so as to form narratives of special incidents. The connection may be of the slightest, chiefly chronological; but the result brings into relief a number of almost forgotten social facts, abortive or fruitful in later improvement—early evidences of movements still in action. As an open field for social development and experimentation, the United States offered an opportunity for appreciating social forces. Without training in economics Mr. McMaster is on this matter at once suggestive and weak. The ten years covered by this volume marked the fullest development of slavery in the South; but no attempt is made to show its evils and its supposed advantages. That the year 1860 should have found the people willing to enter into extreme protection, even under cover of a war necessity, receives no explanation, and his treatment of the wages question carefully avoids any connection with the tariff. Nor while describing the growth of cities does he suggest the beginnings of the political "boss," surely a distinctive creation of municipal opportunity. He is strong in collecting a large number of items on a certain subject; but too often these elaborate compilations lead to no conclusion. Names and incidents, called into activity by a special occasion and exerting only local influence, might judiciously have been pruned so as to permit the introduction of matters of permanent importance.

If the filibusters against Cuba and Nicaragua deserve notice, would not commercial reciprocity with Canada, of strong and lasting influence on the economic development of the Dominion, demand at least mention? The opinions on Lincoln's capacity expressed by individuals of all parties were even more remarkable than those cited from the Democratic press. The economic dependence of the South on cotton, which led to a political assurance of its power to coerce foreign nations as well as the North, is only casually mentioned; while the intensely bitter sectional hatred of the South against New England escapes attention.

The paraphrasing of newspapers involves dangers which Mr. McMaster has not escaped—those of monotony and prolixity. Contemporary opinion needs to be tested by severe analysis, for it suffers from all forms of distortion. In biography this distortion is an advantage; it gives the personal equation of the subject, and the frame or setting of the biography corrects the most marked defects. But Mr. McMaster is the most impersonal of historians. He rarely expresses an opinion beyond the adjective he uses in the narrative, and nowhere has he sought to outline the character of a leader. Lincoln, Buchanan, and Brown are no more to him than a steamboat, a railway, or an anonymous writer in a village newspaper. These well-known names appear and disappear as occasion offers, but the cause of their existence and the result of their agency are equally ill-defined. With a style which lends itself to the picturesque, the volume is singularly lacking in that quality. The trial of John Brown and the Mountain Meadows Massacre are related in the same terms as a political convention; and to the summary of the Lincoln-Douglas debate, though called in the chapter heading "the great debate," is assigned no more space than is given to the visit of Kossuth.

In paraphrasing from a number of sources confusion is created. Many of the paragraphs read as if made up by the "clippings editor." In drawing his material from many sources, without regard to the standing or influence of the source, skill in piecing cannot avoid this confusion. In a paragraph on North Carolina in 1860 a single sentence is taken from each of seven journals. In an attempt to estimate public opinion in one State this is justifiable; but the method fails when public opinion on the repeal of the Missouri Compromise is to be defined. On pages 267-268 a part of the paragraph is taken from D. D. Field; but the relation continues in the same tone without credit given to any source. The reader must decide if it is Field who is still speaking, or some unnoted authority. Then, too, in drawing from those who have made special studies in the same period Mr. McMaster might have been more liberal of credit. In this case criticism of style and method is in place, because much more is demanded of this last volume than of the first. Not only has the subject broadened, but the reader is more critical. He looks for something beyond a compilation from printed sources. Mr. McMaster does use manuscripts, but haltingly and unskilfully. He has dipped into the Webster, Buchanan, Stanton, Hammond, and Dreer collections, but the results are not striking and show the author to be out of his true element. Nor has he done what was needful in some instances. Injustice is done to Col. Higginson in making him remain at Worcester after the failure of Brown's raid. He wrote letters to his colleagues crying out against the cowardice of deserting Brown in his extremity, for which they were in a measure responsible; and, in disguise, he went to Harper's Ferry to see what could be done to aid the doomed man. A request would have obtained from the Department of State the instructions given to McLane (p. 437); the name of the Tennessee paper of divided political allegiance might have been given. Of positive errors a few may be noted for correction: It was Daniel S. Dickinson, not Daniel A. (p. 168); Troup, not Troupe, of Georgia (p. 178); Amory Laurence, not Amos (p. 203); and Donelson, not Donaldson (p. 265).

After all is said in criticism of methods and results, Mr. McMaster has shown great industry and no little discrimination during the progress of his extensive undertaking. Others will find his volumes a great storehouse of facts, presented in an attractive manner. He is not to be compared with Henry Adams; he has not the breadth, certainty and sweep of Channing; he lacks the poise and personal element of Rhodes. He must stand as a highly trained compiler, possessed of a style which sometimes betrays him into unexpected weaknesses.

A Preface to Politics. By Walter Lippmann. New York: Mitchell Kennerley. $1.50 net.

Cleverness, cynicism, humor, and common-sense, together with a liberal infusion of that curious credulity that is so distinguishing a feature of modern "advanced" thought, all expressed with a liberal sprinkling of epigram, make of Mr. Lippmann's book pleasant reading and a gentle stimulant to thought. He has read his Chesterton to some purpose, at least so far as style is concerned, and he has yielded his philosophic soul to the allurements of Bergson and the Pragmatists of the most ultra school. He has made his act of faith in that "modern philosophy" which in its vigorous revolt from the deadening mechanistic theories of Spencer and his day has placed the will in its new found "freedom" on the throne of the universe, wholly autonomous, wholly creative, wholly loosed from the trammels of a past which concerns it not, and wholly lord of a future which lies at its feet. Without following him in subscribing to this somewhat portentous and highly dogmatic creed, one may cheerfully assent to some of his suggestions and criticisms upon present tendencies. His view of the business of politics is that of an intelligent socialist. "It is perfectly true that that government is best which governs least. It is equally true that that government is best which provides most" (p. 266). In these phrases he seems to sum up the fundamental idea of his system—if, indeed, he would allow that he has a "system," and he probably would not! And when we come to ask what government is to "provide" we get the idea that, instead of a mechanical repression of "evil" by police power (what he

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calls the "taboo"), the statesman will strive to find a "moral equivalent" for that evil (in the manner of James in the case of war) and will furnish an innocent or even useful expression for the impulses and desires which in their perversion give birth to wrongdoing. (It is not clear that Mr. Lippmann believes in the existence of any wrongdoing which has not "social" consequences; if he does he has not said so, and one gets the impression from his book that he does not.)

But it is not in his constructive suggestions that he is most profitable or most entertaining; it is rather his remarks *upon things as they are* and his criticisms of men as they live that are stimulating. His characterizations of Roosevelt, Wilson, Bryan, and Tammany Hall are penetrating, and there are occasional vignettes that are worth while. For instance: "From Senator Lodge, for example, we do not expect any new perception of popular need. We know that probably his deepest sincerity is an attempt to reproduce the atmosphere of the Senate a hundred years ago. The manners of Mr. Lodge have that immobility which comes from too much gazing at bad statues of dead statesmen" (p. 6). For the sake of this kind of thing one can easily pardon his rather juvenile and cocksure pronouncements on such things as art, morals, and religion, with the feeling that he will probably outgrow most of them.

The Life of Sir Henry Vane the Younger. By John Willcock, M.A., D.D. With 13 portraits. London: St. Catherine Press.

The lives of those seventeenth-century Englishmen who for one reason or another emigrated to America and subsequently returned to participate in the great religious and constitutional struggles that were raging in their native land, are fraught with unusual interest for readers on both sides of the Atlantic. The most important of them was unquestionably the founder of Pennsylvania. Another, less known than he deserves to be, was Sir George Downing, a graduate of Harvard College in the class of 1642, who went back to England during the Civil War to become Ambassador to the Netherlands under Cromwell and Charles II, and a stanch upholder of the doctrine of appropriation of supplies. The career of Sir Henry Vane the Younger, however, surpasses both of these in human interest and dramatic climax; indeed, it would be hard to find a more attractive subject in a period which teems with great men. Four formal lives of him had already been written in England and America when Mr. Willcock (who, by the way, is the author of three other recent seventeenth-century biographies) began the work which lies before us; but he has found enough new material, and been able to present old facts in sufficiently new lights, amply to justify him in his latest undertaking.

Born in 1613, the eldest son of a father prominent in the Parliaments and councils of the first two Stuart Kings, educated at Westminster and Oxford, Sir Henry Vane the Younger emigrated in 1635 to Massachusetts, in order to be able to enjoy the free exercise of his strong Puritan beliefs. Elected Governor of the colony, the year after his arrival, at the age of twenty-three, he was obliged to yield his office to Winthrop in 1637 on account of the unpopularity of Mrs. Hutchinson and the Antinomians, whose cause he had warmly espoused; and in August of that year he returned to England. He sat as a member of the Short and Long Parliaments, accidentally discovered and permitted Pym to copy the notes taken by his father on Strafford's famous speech at the fatal Council meeting of May 5, 1540, and thus furnished the evidence which ultimately was to send "Black Tom Tyrant" to the block; he was an ardent supporter of the "Root and Branch" bill, and gave his whole-hearted allegiance to the popular cause. An enthusiastic champion of liberty of conscience, he bitterly opposed the tyranny of the Presbyterian system, and until the year 1647 was one of the dearest and most intimate friends of Oliver Cromwell. His desire to reach some compromise which should save the King and settle religion on the basis of moderate episcopacy and toleration led, however, to a divergence between the two men, which became a permanent breach on the occasion of Cromwell's forcible dissolution of the Long Parliament in April, 1653, which Vane bitterly opposed. The scene enacted there is familiar to all students of English history.

Perhaps the most difficult question which confronts the biographer of a man like Vane is to decide how much general history of the period to include. Certainly, no one can complain that Mr. Willcock has neglected his background; some of his readers will probably feel that he has overdone it, especially as he is by no means uniformly accurate in his delineations of current events or constitutional problems; his statements about "tonnage and poundage" on p. 20 are a case in point. The somewhat wandering accounts of the early lives of Laud and Wentworth could also, in our opinion, have been omitted, or at least cut down. There is a misprint on page 9. Narragansett is not, as Mr. Willcock (p. 28) seems to think, the name of a river. These details, however, do not seriously diminish the value of Mr. Willcock's work. And it is gratifying to note that he has resisted the temptation to hero-worship (would that all the other biographers of Vane had done the same!), that he writes pleasingly and for the most part convincingly, and that he knows his subject sufficiently well to be entitled to speak with authority. His life of Vane is by far the best that has yet been produced.

Notes

Volumes I and II of the "History of England in the Eighteenth Century," are soon to appear in Longmans' popular edition of Lecky's works.

"Greek Imperialism," by W. S. Ferguson; "The Publisher," by Robert S. Yard; "New Letters of an Idle Man," by H. J. Warner, and a uniform edition of the writings of James B. Perkins, comprising six volumes, on French history, are among the new books listed by the Houghton Mifflin Company.

Autumn offerings for children listed by Duffield & Company include "Imagina," by Julia Ellisworth Ford, illustrated in color by Arthur Rackham; "Hoistah: An Indian Girl," by S. M. Barrett; a new edition of Carové's "Story Without an End"; "The Peekaboo Book" and "A Spartan Primer," by Grace G. Drayton, and "Festival Plays," a new volume in the Play series by Marguerite Merington.

The Cambridge University Press will issue through G. P. Putnam's Sons "Der Zuave," adapted from the German and edited by G. T. Ungold, designed for pupils who have completed their first course in German, and "The Little Schools of Port-Royal," by H. C. Barnard, a detailed study of the theories and practice of the Port-Royalists.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to publish "The Married Life of Queen Victoria," by Clare Jerrold; "The New Agrarianism," by C. W. Dahlinger; "The Quest of the Dream," by E. K. Wallace; "A Little Green World: A Village Comedy," by J. E. Buckrose; "The Belief in Personal Immortality," by E. S. P. Haynes; "Which Temple Ye Are," by A. H. W.

The story of "A Fool and His Money," by George Barr McCutcheon, heads the list of Dodd, Mead & Co.'s autumn publications, followed by novelizations of "Peg o' My Heart" and "Years of Discretion"; "The Taste of Apples," by Jennette Lee; "The Destroyer," by B. E. Stevenson; "The Honour of the House," by Mrs. Hugh Fraser; "The Honour of the Clintons," by Archibald Marshall.

Other books listed by the same firm are: "Religion in Social Action," by Graham Taylor; Maeterlinck's "Our Eternity," translated by A. T. de Mattos; Fabre's "Life of the Fly"; "The Tourists' Spain and Portugal," by Ruth K. Wood; "Travels in the Pyrenees," by C. Scott-O'Connor, and the story of the polar expedition, under the title "Scott's Last Expedition."

Autumn and winter publications scheduled by the Columbia University Press include

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"Learned Societies and English Literary Scholarships," by H. R. Steeves; "Gnomic Poetry in Anglo-Saxon," by Blanche C. Williams; "Aaron Hill: Poet, Dramatist, Projector," by Dorothy Brewster; "Chaucer and the Roman de la Rose," by Dean Spruill Fansler; "Wieland and Shaftesbury," by Charles Elson; "The Dative of Agency," by Alexander Green; "Diderot as a Disciple of English Thought," by R. L. Cru; "Uncle and Nephew in the Old French Chansons de Geste," by W. O. Farnsworth; "Sumerian Records from Drehem," by W. M. Nesbit; "Root Determinatives in Semitic Speech," by S. T. H. Hurwitz, and Vols. I, III, IV, Studies in Cancer and Allied Subjects.

The twenty-fifth edition of Baedeker's "Switzerland, and the Adjacent Portions of Italy, Savoy, and Tyrol" (Scribner) comes out at a time when the heavy travel to that country has closed for the year, but the book will be ready for the spring exodus and will need no recommendation.

The American Book Company, in conjunction with G. & C. Merriam Co., has brought out a new "Webster's Secondary-School Dictionary," which, as it is abridged from the "New International," has the stamp of authenticity and authority. It contains above 70,000 words and some 1,000 illustrations. It is sold at the low price of $1.50.

A new edition of "The Family" (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company), by Charles F. and Carrie F. Butler Thwing, has been issued. The first edition was published in 1885 and is widely and favorably known. The changes in this edition include a revision of the chapter on the teachings of Christ on the family, corrections of statistics respecting divorce, and a discussion of the probable effects on the family of possible changes in the direction of Socialism.

The new edition of Dr. Wilfred T. Grenfell's "Labrador: the Country and the People" (Macmillan) is a reprint of the edition of 1909, with two additional chapters on "Animal Life in Labrador" and "Conservation and Exploration," and brief bibliographies. It is too bad that the original text has not been revised: the account of the present condition of the Moravian missions and the Eskimo, for example, needs recasting, and chapter ii, on travelled routes to Labrador, is quite out of date. The work of the Grenfell mission, also, has expanded a good deal since the book first appeared. In his new chapter on conservation and exploration, Dr. Grenfell makes an earnest plea for the scientific utilization of Labrador as a game preserve, a study of the fisheries with a view to their preservation, and the development of the mineral and timber resources of the country.

"The First Explorations of the Trans-Allegheny Region by the Virginians" (A. H. Clark), by C. W. Alvord and Lee Bidgood, is an edition of the sources relating to English exploration west of the mountains between 1650 and 1670. The chief sources are Bland's pamphlet on the "Discovery of New Britain begun in 1650," the "Discoveries of John Lederer begun in 1669," Clayton's "Transcript of the Journal of Robert Fallam," a letter of Abraham Wood relating the journey of Needham and Arthur, and Daniel Coxe's account of the activities of the English in the Mississippi valley in the seventeenth century. The editors provide an introduction of eighty-four pages, presenting in great detail all that is known of the expeditions and much biographical material of the men connected with them. The motives of the explorations were "Asiatic commerce, mines of gold and silver, and the fur trade." The material here published corrects the impression conveyed by Parkman and Winsor, that the French had the better claim to the West by discovery. On the contrary, "Englishmen were among the first to see the waters that flow westward and southward. They knew the region of the upper Ohio years before the French had any record of the river's course." These facts are well established, but a much briefer introduction would have answered every purpose. The belief of the editors that Wood, Batts, Fallam, and Needham are deserving of fame as well as Joliet, Marquette, and LaSalle, doubtless accounts for the length of the introduction. But there is one striking difference between the explorations of the former and those of the latter: the discoveries of the French were followed up by the establishment of trading posts and forts, while the discoveries of the English were without practical effect, so far as English occupation is concerned, for nearly half a century. It is difficult for historians to confer fame on men whose actions were little noted by their contemporaries.

"France" (Macmillan), by Cecil Headlam, is one of The Making of the Nations series. It is certainly difficult to write a good history of the French nation in 400 pages. Besides accurate knowledge, the author should have a firm grasp of the larger movements, the decisive tendencies; and the literary skill which is essential for bringing them into proper relation. Mr. Headlam has accurate knowledge, for the most part, but the narrative is little more than a concise, clear summary of facts, mainly political, in chronological sequence—a series of events presented on a dead level, without relief or relative emphasis. The author is probably better equipped for the earlier than for the later part of French history. At all events the least satisfactory part of the book is that which deals with the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The period from 1815 to 1870 is dispatched in fourteen pages, which is less space than is given to Philip IV and his three successors. Thirty-six pages are given to the *ancien régime* and the Revolution, neither of which is adequately presented, even allowing for the limitation of space. The reader will not understand very well why the king was executed, or what was the difference between Girondin and Jacobin, or what was the essential meaning of the Terror. It can scarcely be maintained without qualification that Voltaire was one of those who believed human nature to be naturally good, certainly not that the Constituante was mainly concerned with the agrarian revolution, or that it was dominated by the ideas of Rousseau. Montesquieu, not Rousseau, inspired the Deputies of the First Assembly.

Those who wish to form a first-hand impression of the character and work of Francisco Ferrer will welcome Joseph McCabe's translation of "The Origin and Ideals of the Modern School" (Putnam). The "Modern School," it should be noted, was the school established by Ferrer. The book was found among the papers restored to Ferrer's trustees. It was his only book, and, as Mr. McCabe says, it is a frank portrayal of the character of the man and a description of his aims.

The proceedings of the Second National Conference on Housing, held in Philadelphia last December, have been published in admirable form as Volume II of "Housing Problems in America." The first volume of that name, a year or so ago, signalized the auspicious beginning of a movement to bring together in one organization persons in all parts of the country who are thinking and working on the vital problems of housing. The second volume marks a gratifying advance in the number of those who assembled to participate in the Conference, and in the range and interest of the proceedings. Following an address by Mr. Bryce on "The Menace of Great Cities," the leading papers, ten in number, deal with sanitary inspection of lodgings, tenement and building laws, overcrowding and the lodger evil, the best types of workingmen's houses, the possibility of moving factories and the homes of workers to the outskirts of cities, garden cities, the financing of house-building projects, etc. Discussion of the papers and reports by delegates on what has been accomplished in their several communities occupy some 200 pages. The discussion is full of enthusiasm, suggestion, and practical experience.

Four years ago the *Nation* (September 9, 1909) noted the appearance of Prof. C. H. Grandgent's edition of the "Inferno" (Heath). A companion volume containing the "Purgatorio" was published in 1911. A third volume, the "Paradiso," and a large volume containing the entire "Divine Comedy" have now been issued simultaneously. The large volume is printed from the plates used for the smaller ones, and the three *cantiche*, in consequence, are separately paged. A few errors found in the separate issues of the "Inferno" and the "Purgatorio" are corrected in the complete form. The work thus finished is the first American annotated edition of the Italian text of "The Divine Comedy." The comment, appearing in footnotes and in arguments prefixed to the several cantos, is notable both for its thorough and alert scholarship and for its skilful adaptation, in material and in arrangement, to the needs of the American student. The open page gives the impression that the text's the thing, and the notes seem what they are, instead of presenting a formidable mass scholastic in proportions. The translations of difficult phrases are particularly good; they have something of the finality of the original. The mature reader will find, among many satisfactions, a style of delightful vigor and finish in the introductions and arguments. The book will stimulate American study of Dante both in quantity and in quality. In its importance and in its excellence this edition is worthy to rank with the Dante translations of Longfellow and Norton.

J. G. Robertson's "The Literature of Germany" (Holt) gives within a small compass an excellent connected narrative of the salient facts in the history of German literature from the earliest times down to the present day. It is a popular book and

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passes lightly over many things which in themselves might seem to deserve more than mention. Naturally, the Middle Ages receive only scant attention. The period of the Reformation, however, is made to appear more barren of real literature than it was. The Age of Classic Achievement is most fully and adequately treated. Romanticism does not fare so well, and we should have expected such a figure as Heinrich von Kleist to stand out much more prominently. The multifarious nineteenth century is, on the whole, presented in orderly and skilful fashion. We may question Professor Robertson's judgment in the matter of omissions, but seldom in the matter of evaluation or the indication of relationships. The little book is interestingly written and is of a kind to inspire respect for both subject and author.

The career of Sigma Xi is so closely identified with the development of scientific study in America that its "Quarter Century History and Record, 1886-1911," compiled by the Secretary, Henry Baldwin Ward, and published by the University of Illinois, is a valuable document in the history of education. It is strange that, with the society's rapid growth in scope and dignity, embracing every section but the South, this is the first formal account of its activities to be published, and its first catalogue since 1893. It numbered, in 1911, twenty-eight active chapters, with 4,498 members distributed through all the important colleges and every scientific profession; and its influence on undergraduate scholarship is held second only to that of Phi Beta Kappa, founded more than a hundred years earlier:

> By stamping as the primary factor in scientific pursuits the power to investigate, Sigma Xi has laid the emphasis on the general good, and freed itself from self-centred tendencies. Locally it has often led in the discussion of educational values; and it has put on an equal basis with research in pure science that pursuit of applied science which has prolonged human life and made it in a thousand ways worth living. The emphasis thus laid upon service is a worthy contribution to national advancement.

Besides historical matter connected with Sigma Xi, which the reader must wish had been amplified, the publication contains statistical tables, lists of members by chapters, a general name-index, a geographical name-index, lists of officers, and the constitution and by-laws. The only illustrations are reproductions of early programmes and minute-sheets. The task of compilation was obviously onerous, and the secretary records that chapter negligence complicated the difficulty of procuring documentary materials, and at times made absolute accuracy impossible.

Henry Billings Brown, formerly Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court, died last Thursday at the age of seventy-seven. He was born in South Lee, Mass. He was appointed Federal Judge for the Eastern District of Michigan by President Grant, and was raised to the Supreme Court in 1890, retiring in 1906. He was the compiler of "Brown's Admiralty Reports."

Eugene Lemoine Didier has just died in Baltimore at the age of seventy-five. He was educated at Loyola College. He entered on a commercial career, but gave it up in 1867 to accept a place as editor of *Southern Society*, a weekly periodical. Later he was appointed Deputy Marshal of the United States Supreme Court at Baltimore. He was the author of "Life of Edgar Allan Poe," "Life and Letters of Madame Bonaparte," "Primer of Criticism," and "The Political Adventures of James G. Blaine."

William Carew Hazlitt, man of letters, bibliographer, and numismatist, died on Monday in London. He was the son of the late Registrar Hazlitt, of the Court of Bankruptcy, and grandson of William Hazlitt, essayist. He was born in London in 1834 and was educated at the Merchant Taylors' School. He studied civil engineering under George and Sir John Rennie, but gave up that profession for literature and archæology. Among publications by Mr. Hazlitt were: "The Venetian Republic," "Bibliographical Collections and Notes," "The Livery Companies of London," "Tenures of Land and Customs of Manors," and "Four Generations of a Literary Family."

We find reported the death, at Lausanne, of Mlle. Favre, who wrote under the well-known name of "Pierre de Coulevain." Her novels, which have been reviewed so recently that they need not be named here, dealt often with English and American matters.

Science

Mind and Health. With an Examination of Some Systems of Divine Healing. By Edward E. Weaver, Ph.D., Sometime Fellow in Clark University. With an Introduction by G. Stanley Hall, Ph.D., LL.D., President of Clark University. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

Readers of this very interesting book, if by chance they have watched the development of psychologists, and more particularly of those of the American brand, for the past few decades, will find fresh and entertaining evidence of the cool readiness with which these persons take any knowledge to be in their own special field when they choose to care for it.

It is with psychotherapy that Dr. Weaver wishes to deal, its development and some aspects of its application. He devotes an introductory chapter to a short and somewhat bare historical outline which starts with Mesmer. Earlier forebears of the psychotherapeutist are briefly mentioned, but with little or no consideration of their relative importance. As an outline the account is rather good, but the reader would never dream that certain periods had been times of most dramatic and passionate interest or that from time to time science and society were deeply agitated by some of the questions that arose, questions that now cause mere ripples on the surface of opinion. Concerning Mesmer and his immediate succession Dr. Weaver quite overlooks the fact that the general question of electricity and presently the particular question of animal electricity, as the term was then used, were, historically, most intimately connected with the frame of mind that made mesmerism possible. And when the reader to whom the subject is new comes to the modern period, he will hardly see the significance of the Nancy school. Liébeault, although he did not appear in print until 1866, had there begun as early as 1860 to show that by simple suggestion sleep may be induced, or something very like sleep, and also that certain symptoms of disease may be removed; but for years he was neglected and even despised by the faculty of the University and by the other physicians of the town. It was not until 1882, years after Charcot's trumpet from the Salpêtrière had awakened popular and scientific interest in a totally different conception of the questions involved, that Bernheim of Nancy began to pay attention to the healing which for many years had been done unheeded and almost at his very door, and became the prophet of Liébeault. Through Bernheim also, Liégeois and Beaunis were led to take an interest in these studies, and thus after a long delay Liébeault at last came to his own. And again concerning the last and brightest offspring of psychotherapy, psycho-analysis, it may be said that Breuer, although credited with the parentage, hardly gets quite full credit for his share in the upbringing of the child, most of it being given to Freud; but in this neglect of Breuer Dr. Weaver has plenty of company. On the other hand, one may commend the care that he takes to give just and full recognition of the influence of Quimby, without whom Mrs. Eddy and some others would have been impossible.

The next chapter is devoted to theories of mind that form a basis for psychotherapeutics. It cannot be said that a very deep plunge is made here, but the discussion is illuminating and probably sufficient for the readers whom the author wishes to reach. After a brief consideration of the three theories characterized as those of dissociation, of a subliminal self, and of the supra-mental, the first (that of modification or dissociation) is accepted as giving the best foundation, but with the express limitation that the theory must not be interpreted too rigidly. Then follow chapters on what are called the principles of psychotherapy, being an account of the armentarium and technique. Here there is a lack of definiteness and the presence of much confusing quotation where condensation and clean-cut statement are much to be desired. If the reader is looking for practical instruction he will look in vain, as the pages on psychoanalysis (pp. 110, 180 *seq.*) abundantly show.

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Thus far it may seem that the author is seeking good psychological foundations to aid in the development of psychotherapy as a part of medicine, but the rest of the book makes clear that his real interest lies in its usefulness in the work of the church. After some explanation and much citation concerning reality, and particularly concerning religious reality and its share in some types of healing, Dr. Weaver goes on to consider a few of the religious systems of mental healing: Christian Science, the Emmanuel Movement, Divine Healing as exhibited in Dowieism and in the Christian Alliance of Simpson. To each of these systems is given considerable space for the presentation of the essential doctrines and a discussion of their merits and defects, a discussion that seems everywhere not only instructive, but also fair and just. Another chapter is devoted to metaphysical healing, Whipple's "Mental Healing" being taken as the representative of the numerous cults of "new thought." This system seems to appeal to him as the most sober and sanest of the group. Dr. Weaver evidently thinks that Whipple is on the right track, although he has far too much speculation and too little clearness "in his treatment of spiritual intelligence and its relations to consciousness and conceptual thinking." There is apparently just enough of truth in Whipple's metaphysical ideas of psychotherapy to justify the wish that they might be brought out more clearly and receive a surer foundation.

The last three chapters deal with a valid religious system of healing. Of this it is demanded that it be supremely good, recognize æsthetic values, and have in view the truth values; and it will misconceive the goal if it break away from scientific methods. Its aim must be to learn and apply psychotherapeutic principles, but with the recognition of God as the source of power, since to know aright this ultimate reality is to open the channels by which order and harmony may be brought to man's being. Such a power of healing must be exercised by ministers of religion, and this will involve a marked change in theological education with the broadening of the function of the religious teacher. The scope of the system as here set forth, and this is perhaps the crux of the whole book, seems to lie in the fact that an evident increase of ills calls for psychotherapy; in the assurance of greater power thus to be given to the well; in the universality of its message; and finally in the emphasis which will be laid on prophylaxis. There are also practical suggestions as to the part which the church as a body may play by improvement of its service, whose value is easily and now all too frequently underrated, by actively seeking the help of the minister, and by co-operation with all man-saving agencies.

This condensation of the ideas of the author may strike the reader as vague, but the original statement along with an undeniable grandeur of purpose is also vague. Here, as elsewhere in the book, Dr. Weaver evidently has no clear notion as to what the physician is and what he tries to do, and at best a very hazy conception of the danger of doing harm which a religious teacher endeavoring to practice psychotherapy must run. This comes out clearly enough also in his allusions to prophylaxis, with the particular stress on alcohol and venereal diseases, and in statements like this (p. 381): "Epidemics will lose their power. Contagious diseases will be effectually checked, or at least will be robbed of their malignancy"—all this and more as the result of the adoption of psychotherapy in a valid religious system of healing. It looks as though one might ride the psychotherapeutic steed with too free a rein, and there is also the much more serious danger that some readers may think him a mere hobby-horse, fit only for the wood-pile.

Originally begun as a dissertation, the book has many of the earmarks of its origin and of a development in which quotations and cards of reference seem to have swamped the writer at certain points. Its completed form would be much improved by the omission of many quotations or some form of marked concentration. The proofreading, especially with reference to umlauts and accents, leaves much to be desired, and a more careful system in the use of the names and titles of authors would improve the typography. The bibliography has evidently been collected with some industry; it has nearly three hundred titles. These are grouped in six sections and a number of subdivisions, an arrangement which causes much confusion if the reader seek any particular book, for neither the index of names nor that of subjects gives a clue. The basis for the selection of the books to be included is not evident, and the list is hardly as fundamental and exhaustive as its number would suggest.

The study of insects as a hobby is much more widespread in Europe than in this country, as is attested by the large number of collectors' guides and handbooks which there find ready sale. The most recent of these is A. G. Scorer's "Entomologist's Log-Book" (Dutton), which, as its sub-title indicates, is a "dictionary of the life-histories and food plants of the British Macro-lepidoptera." In a single alphabetical arrangement are the host plants, and genera and species of the larger moths and butterflies. By an excellent arrangement there are recorded the more salient points regarding the life histories, time of appearance, habits, etc., of the common British species, while interleaving provides for private notes. The volume will be of much service to English amateurs, but of course can be merely suggestive to students elsewhere.

Illustrated books about the animal world, more or less valuable and variously arranged, have poured from the press since photography and mechanical engraving have made printed pictures cheap and excellent, but the plant-world has been far less favored. Two English botanists, Messrs A. E. Knight and Edward Step, F.L.S., have entered this field in their "Popular Botany" (Holt, 2 vols.), offering an encyclopædic book well worth having for its illustrations if for nothing else. These number no less than 721, besides 18 colored plates; and most of them are from unusually good photographs of living plants, trees, growing fruits, etc. These are supplemented by many excellent drawings of structural details, making clear the anatomy and physiology of representative species or groups, and their specific adaptations. While the text is mainly descriptive of typical or interesting plants in various parts of the world, the general arrangement of the matter is botanical, in the sense that the chapters follow the natural course of plant development from seed to fruitage, and the various pictures and descriptions are of illustrative examples. Thus the attentive reader learns as he proceeds the composition of plants, how they obtain food, of what it consists, and how it is assimilated; the characteristics of plant-growth; the adaptations of plants to their environment, how they protect themselves against adversity, and so on. It is evident that the authors have read widely in their field, and the many citations made from the writings of botanists and scientific travellers add much to the value as well as to the readability of the volumes; yet America seems to have hardly a fair share of attention. On the whole, the work may be recommended, especially to school libraries.

The small book "On Alcoholism, its Clinical Aspects and Treatment" (Blakiston), by Dr. Francis Hare, is based largely on the author's somewhat extended experience as superintendent of the Norwood Sanatorium in Kent (England), a private institution for the treatment of alcoholism and drug habits. It is not intended primarily for the lay reader, and does not expound a "cure" as that term is commonly understood; nor are the methods of treatment such that any but medical men may safely use them. Dr. Hare was for a number of years in general hospital practice in the Colonies before taking up this special line of work. He is no fanatic regarding alcohol and has many rational views concerning its harmful action. His discussion of the problems belonging to the clinical side of alcoholism, particularly of true and pseudo-dipsomania and of alcoholic intolerance as the source of *mania à potu*, carefully to be distinguished from delirium tremens, may be commended to all who care to look into these questions.

The Cambridge University Press (Putnam) has been issuing the collected papers of a number of British physicists. Under the editorship of Sir Joseph Larmor, secretary of the Royal Society, the work of Fitzgerald and Sir George Stokes has been made accessible, and now "The Papers in Physics

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and Engineering" of Prof. James Thomson has been added. There is hardly any work more useful to science than thus to collect and publish the papers of the men who have contributed anything of permanent value, and it should continue until all such are included. The case of James Thomson is an illustration. While he will not rank as a first-rate physicist, yet he discovered one law of fundamental importance, the change of the freezing point with pressure, and in a number of his other papers there are suggestions which have since been developed by others.

Thomson's scientific papers are classified under topics, the larger number of which relate to engineering problems. Of these, his work on pumps and the flow of fluids is the most important. In pure physics, besides the fundamental discovery already mentioned, which, by the way, was published when the author was only twenty-seven years old, there are important papers relating to fluid motion, air currents, and the physical laws of geology. The volume also contains a biographical sketch, which dwells particularly on Thomson's share in the interesting and beautiful family life with which we have already become acquainted in the biographies of his illustrious brother, Lord Kelvin. The excellence of Thomson's English style should also be noted. It is singularly clear and exact. In fact, one of his most characteristic traits was his scrupulous conscientiousness in endeavoring to impart to others in the least ambiguous language attainable the exact ideas he desired to convey. As a result, he apparently could not always find a word suited to his purpose, and therefore introduced many new scientific terms, some of which are now well established. This trait made him reluctant to express an opinion until he was certain of it, and probably accounts for a smaller amount of published work than might have been expected from one who was so constantly occupied with scientific problems. The work of editing is, as always with Sir Joseph Larmor, most unobtrusive and careful, and the press-work of the book is above reproach.

For school teachers the new small book on "School Hygiene" (Macmillan) in Monroe's Brief Course Series in Education may be much commended. It is the work of Fletcher B. Dresslar, who bears the cumbersome title of a specialist in school hygiene and school sanitation of the United States Bureau of Education. Pretty much every topic that bears directly on the health of children in school is touched upon, in so far as it comes under the control of the teacher. The discussion is in the main full, informing, and suggestive, although somewhat uneven. Members of school boards and committees would derive much benefit from a perusal of the book, and not least from a consideration of the duties of good janitors—men little lower than the angels.

Lucien Augustus Wait, professor emeritus at Cornell University, died Saturday at Clifton Springs. He was sixty-seven years old. He was born at Highgate, Vt., and shortly after his graduation at Harvard in 1870 he became assistant professor of mathematics at Cornell. He rose to the head of the department of mathematics in 1895, serving in that capacity until 1910. He founded the Cascadilla Preparatory School. Professor Wait served as United States Consul at Athens in 1873.

Drama

FILTH ON THE STAGE.

No other word will describe it. The theatrical season is just getting under way, and already the standards of ordinary decency and of honest art have been outraged by the mercenary playwright and producer. The success of the "crook play" of former seasons has convinced the traffickers of the theatre that a market exists for stronger meat than they have hitherto ventured to purvey. They have evidently set out to satisfy the demand, and we are now witnessing a competitive struggle in the theatre, tending towards the survival of the nastiest. Under the guise of contributions towards the study of the social evil, plays have been thrown on the stage which are abominable in their theme and still more abominable in their intention.

None of the factors that serve to excuse, partially or totally, the introduction into art of what is ugly or revolting enter into the present case. Not all of us admit that high purpose or sincerity is sufficient excuse for any treatment of any theme that the artist may feel impelled to undertake; but a great many do hold that opinion. Not all of us admit that the claims of art, for its own sake, absolve its practitioners from the established restraints of decency and the recognized laws of beauty; yet there are a great many people who do say so. But what question is there, in the present invasion of the stage by the cesspool exploiters, of either high purpose and sincerity or high art? Brieux and Shaw, and Gorky before them, have the standing of belligerents against society. They have made it their mission to instruct or shock into self-examination the supporters of a social order whose basic ideas they detest or pity. Whatever may be said about the sincerity of one who seems the least sincere of these leaders of revolt—Bernard Shaw—the fact remains that well through middle age he did not commit violence upon the public for profit. For this reason there is a certain difference between the significance of a production like "Mrs. Warren's Profession," and the foul material that is shovelled on the stage to-day by the native dramatists. The thing is so obviously done for profit and so obviously done in disregard both of the truth of life and the truth of art. What we have is neither satire as with Shaw, nor exhortation as with Brieux, nor wild wrath as with Gorky, nor the profound sense of the pity and terror of life as with Flaubert. It is just a trafficking in filth.

In this cold-blooded, almost automatic, response to the appeal, or supposed appeal, of the box-office, consists the main offence. If the promise of profit to-day were brighter for plays like "'Way Down East," these craftsmen would be turning out plays of homely pathos and platitude. If the outlook seemed to be bright for the drama of Big Business and politics, they would be lashing out at Wall Street. You are convinced that if public attention should centre next year upon the aeroplane or the model village, they will be producing aeroplane and commuter plays next year. Is this lack of conscience or lack of understanding? Are these men under the impression that putting the brothel on the stage has no worse consequences than putting a church-wedding on the stage? One is almost tempted to believe that ignorance is at the bottom of it all; that the men who are now dramatizing the reports of the vice commissions are not aware of the consequences of what they are doing. "White slaves" and the social evil are now in the air, and what is in the air is apparently fit for dramatic exploitation. The outcast of the streets is a novelty, just as at one time princesses of Zenda were a novelty; and the irresistible law of expediency makes the playwright forget what can be decently done and what must in decency be let alone. After all, behind the theatrical man who is exploiting filth for mercenary ends, we may not be wrong in laying the blame to no small degree on those sensational reformers and giddy humanitarians who, working in willing or unwilling conjunction with the yellow press, are accustoming thoughtless minds to the contemplation of vice in all its hideous forms, and deadening the right sensibility of the public while attempting to awaken it.

Plays of Old Japan: The Nō. By Marie C. Stopes. Together with translations of the dramas by M. C. Stopes and Joji Sakurai. Illustrated. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.75 net.

This charming little volume embodies the hard "task of years" of a brilliant Englishwoman. It is remarkable enough that a student of palæobotany, for such is Mrs. Stopes-Gates, should develop literary powers of a high class; it is altogether extraordinary that she should, as she has done, go deeply into the most difficult branch of the difficult literature of an old Oriental nation, and succeed in interpreting to the English-reading public its spirit and beauty.

The Nō pieces, of which four are here presented in English, were products of the simple literary taste of the warrior class of Japan in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. They are crude dramatizations of old legends, embellish-

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ed with numerous allusions to ancient literature and traditions well known at that time; in spirit, the Nō plays are, one and all, thoroughly imbued with the Buddhist idea of the transitoriness of the world. Both the language and the thought are already so remote from the present generation of Japanese that, though the singing of the Nō is a fashion of the day among certain classes, commentaries are needed to elucidate many obscure points. The place the Nō occupies in the literary history of Japan is highly important; and, from a broader point of view, these plays are not without interest in the history of the world's literature—for their apparent resemblance to Greek dramas, at least in their use of choruses, and, above all, for their poetic presentation, sometimes in a highly dramatic fashion, of the elemental, universal pathos of this fleeting life of ours, and of the profound human desire to rise into the spiritual region where is neither birth nor death—which is eternity.

Our author manifests a lively appreciation of these points; she has never lost sight of them throughout her work of translation, which must have been arduous in the extreme. The validity of her general principle regarding translation, namely, to be faithful to the original sense, but not to be needlessly literal and unidiomatic, would seem to depend entirely on the personal success of the translator. In the present instance, the practice has justified the idea. It seems perfectly safe to explain the Nō to the Occidental reader through the medium of these translations. Such occasional slips as may be noticed, as, for example, *mō-shū* (delusion), on page 48, which is taken for *mō-zhū* (wild beast), are few and relatively unimportant. The only serious fault we have found arises from the fact that the various tendencies of Buddhist thought that are typified in the original plays—the Tendai, or Zen, of the "Maiden's Tomb"; the faith that centred about the resolves and acts of Avalokitesvara as expounded in the Saddharma-pundarika, of "Tamura"; and the dependence on the saving power of Amita-Budhha of the Pure Land of the West, of "Sumida River"—are not characterized by the translator with sufficient diversity. As a result, the chanting of the sutra (pp. 48, 49, 73), the religious care of the departed (p. 69), and the adoration of Amita (p. 78, etc.), are alike translated as "prayers."

The translations are preceded by an interestingly written introduction on the nature of the Nō and its performance on the stage. We venture to think that, had Mrs. Stopes-Gates read even Professor Tsubouchi's brief history of the Nō in "Fifty Years of New Japan," edited by Count S. Okuma (II, 378-380), her own account would have been made clearer without occupying any additional space.

Feminine touches of the translator are frequently visible (see, *e. g.*, pp. 18, 38, and note 48 on p. 102), and add greatly to the charm of the work. The illustrations are by the Japanese artist Kōgyo, who has also adorned Mr. Wada's tales of the Nō in Japanese recently published in two volumes.

The Baconian business is of the stuff selected by the dam of all the nightmares for the construction of the ancestral nest. A late example is Sir Edwin Durning Lawrence's discovery that a "starre-ypointed pyramid," found instead of the grammatically less correct "starre-ypointing" in one copy of Milton's famous epitaph, is really a *beacon* (pronounced Bacon, as it may have been in Elizabeth's day). Puzzles and puns we have always with us—and devotees of the cryptogram who are happily unconcerned with the facts of literary history. It is not to such that Mr. J. M. Robertson addresses his stout volume, "The Baconian Heresy" (Dutton). Mr. Greenwood and Dr. Theobald and the like are the men he attacks, and although they doubtless will remain eloquently unconvinced, the book should be of considerable service to the large class whom Mark Twain called "Brontosaurians"; honest men enough, not over learned in the ways of Elizabethan literature, who allow themselves to be puzzled by the factitious difficulties about Shakspere the player and Shakespeare the pseudonym. There are many such people, and to them Mr. Robertson's confutation does a great kindness in making the difficulties of the Baconian heresy abundantly plain. The matter of the legal acquirements, for example, possessed by the author of the plays has been a stumbling-block to many; even Andrew Lang expressed himself entirely at a loss on the point, and Mark Twain, following his inspirer, Mr. Greenwood, is willing to let his whole case stand or fall by the question of Shakespeare's limitless familiarity with the law. But it is easy for Mr. Robertson to demonstrate, though the assembling of the data cost some patience, that Shakespeare was on the whole rather less given than many of his contemporaries to adorning his language with legalisms; it was an Elizabethan fashion, and Shakespeare, by being in it, presents no peculiarity calling for an explanation, least of all the explanation thrust upon a credulous world by Lord Campbell, and supported, unhappily, by the facile guesses of some Shakespearean scholars, that he was a lawyer.

Again, the myth of Shakespeare's classical attainments, which rests on the blankest ignorance of the kind of literature accessible to the sixteenth-century reader, likewise fails utterly to stand the test of a comparative method. With undiminished vigor, however, Mr. Robertson continues to flog the dead corpse of heresy, showing the folly of argument from coincidence of phrase between Shakespeare and Bacon, and the world-wide contrast in their intellectual interests, their lives and personalities. Even the much vexed problem of the second-best bed is carefully discussed. Altogether the author is justified of his pains, disproportionate as they sometimes seem to the importance of the question involved, in the production of a book which renders further argument supererogatory. If after reading it the wayfaring man is still uncertain of his course, he may in all conscience be abandoned to his folly. Incidentally, the book contains some interesting critical asides, such as the examination of Shakespeare's prose style, which concludes that Chaucer was the greater master of the two.

Music

The *Century Opera Weekly* has made its appearance. Its 32-48 pages are to include not only the current repertory of the Century Opera Company, but a number of magazine features, besides news of conservatories, churches, and musical clubs. The first issue contains articles on "The American Girl in Grand Opera," "The Movement for Popular Opera in New York," "The Future of Music and the Music of the Future," "Russian Opera and Ballet in London," "Preparing for an Operatic Career." The writer of the first-named article makes the astounding statement that "America has turned out not only some but a majority of the greater prima donnas of the world."

Is the music teacher doomed? The opinion is gaining ground that he will be displaced by the phonograph, which shows every student how the great songs are sung by the great artists. Mr. Edison has phonographs which do for the ear what a microscope does for the eye, exaggerating everything, including the faults, which it is thus easier to correct. Hans von Bülow used to caricature the faults of his pupils for this purpose. His services were not without value in other respects; and perhaps some other teachers may survive in the struggle with the all-recording phonograph. One might say that teachers are needed to impart to pupils the art of interpretation. This art, however, cannot be taught, according to Liszt, who, nevertheless, taught it, and successfully, too. The world is full of paradoxes and contradictions!

The Pope's favorite among Italian composers of the period seems to be Don Lorenzo Perosi. Heretofore Perosi has been known chiefly by his oratorios, one of which made its way across the Atlantic; but it did not set the Hudson River on fire. Italian journals now announce that he is at work on an opera—not a "sacred opera," like some of Rubinstein's, but a real opera, with a worldly text. What is more, the libretto of this opera has been submitted to the Pope, who has approved of it. The opera is likely to be produced before the end of the season. Perosi was appointed director of the Sistine Chapel in 1898. The journalists, who refer to his operatic venture as something new and surprising, seem to be unaware of the fact that he composed a real opera, "Romeo and Juliet," some years ago. Of his masses the Pope is apparently fond, for there are twenty-five of them.

Is there such a thing as specifically and unmistakably Jewish music? Oscar Bie puts this question in an article written for the *Konzert Taschenbuch,* and translated by Jacques Mayer for the *Hebrew Standard.* After examining the peculiarities of Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer, Halévy, Offenbach, and Mahler (with a few words on the

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doubtful cases of Bizet and Wagner), he comes to the conclusion that there is no general or always conclusive characteristic. The Jews "have never created their own musical speech." Their creativeness is "somewhat greater in music than in poetry."

The operetta market is improving in Berlin. After a notable decline in the past few years, the present season promises an unusual number of novelties. The composers responsible for them are Edgar Istel, H. von Vojacek, Friedrich Bermann, W. W. Götze, Robert Leonard, Friedrich von Thul, K. F. Adolfi, Rudolf Baron, etc.

Philip Hale expresses the wish in the *New Music Review* that some one who has the patience and the critical acumen of Mr. O. G. Sonneck would make a collection of the popular songs of this country. "There are collections of Foster's songs; there is a volume of the more characteristic songs of Harrigan and Hart, with music by Dave Braham, but there is no anthology beginning with the Revolution." The collection might include some of the psalm tunes which in New England homes were folk-songs, and the patriotic songs of 1812. The nearest approach we have to real folk-songs are the melodies of Stephen Foster, the best of which would, of course, have to be included. Nor would it do to overlook some of the songs sung by Christy's Minstrels, the Virginia Minstrels, and Wood's Minstrels.

Art

A Short Critical History of Architecture. By H. Heathcote Statham, Fellow of the Royal Institute of British Architects. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.75.

If the English-speaking public is not thirsting for instruction in the history of architecture, there are evidently those who believe that it ought to be thirsting, and will thirst, and who are ready to provide the instruction in good season for the expected demand. The house of Scribners have imported from the Batsford Press in London a new one-volume history of architecture by the author of "Architecture for General Readers," published some twenty years since; of "Modern Architecture" (1895), and of other works. The new history is a stout octavo of 544 pages of historical text with 583 illustrations of a high average of excellence, and is in the main a trustworthy, intelligent, and (with occasional lapses) a well-written compendium. The general arrangement is along epochal and stylistic lines; the geographical and national divisions are minimized. This works well for the classical and Byzantine developments, but is sometimes confusing in the matter of the various provincial and national schools of the mediæval, Renaissance, and Moslem developments. The curious running page-headings are distracting rather than helpful; on the other hand, the chronological tables appended to each section are valuable aids.

Apart from the confusing association of works of widely scattered schools in the accounts of given periods, the historical matter is generally sound and accurate, though occasional slips may be noted, such as making the Hyksos period in Egypt last 500 years ("as long as the time from William the Conqueror to Elizabeth"), and dating the church of San Ambrogio at Milan, as a whole, in the twelfth century; but these are few and unimportant. The analysis and criticism of styles and buildings are generally fair. Roman architecture, so often disparaged in other books, is treated with discriminating praise and blame —the latter not wholly free from the narrow prejudices which seem to have become traditional among English and American writers in speaking of the orders, and especially of the arcaded order, which Mr. Statham thinks "has left a long legacy of falsehood to architecture." Mr. Statham admires the Pantheon at Rome, but is so sure that he could have designed it better that he offers his own design in evidence (p. 153). The serene self-confidence which this reveals appears also in the summary way in which he dismisses the controversy over the question of the stage in the Greek theatre. Although the best Hellenists and students of dramatics are still divided over it, it presents no difficulties for this author, who pronounces a final verdict *ex cathedrâ* against Dörpfeld and "the Americans," and in favor of the stage. So on page 158 he disposes of the mystery of the immense blocks in the podium of the Sun Temple at Baalbec; they were merely the advertisement of an enterprising quarryman!

The account of the mediæval styles, in spite of its confused arrangement, is excellent, and there is none of that "patriotic" effort sometimes found in English books to minimize the French achievements and influence and unduly to exalt the English contributions to the development of Gothic architecture. The Renaissance architects are acquitted of the charge of being mere copyists, and the Renaissance work of Germany and Spain is fairly treated, in contrast to its entire omission from the much larger treatise of Professor Simpson.

Of Americans and their art Mr. Statham has little good to say. In footnotes and *obiter dicta* he repeatedly girds at them, especially at their writers and professors, with sarcastic asperity. The Capitol at Washington is "only an effort at sublimity in cement" (*sic*); and our commercial buildings "are mostly mere masses of commonplace architecture run up with no purpose but money-making." The ultra-commercial spirit, he declares, began in America. Yet he has to confess that American architecture at present "takes a very high place indeed," especially in our public buildings; and as "it is superior to that of either Germany or England," he may be forgiven his cement Capitol and his slaps at the professors.

A glossary and a very full index occupy the last forty pages of the volume.

Curtis & Cameron announce the early publication of Mr. Abbey's last work, "The Reading of the Declaration of Independence," a mural decoration for the Pennsylvania State Capitol at Harrisburg.

Okakura Kakuzo, the distinguished Japanese art critic, died at Tokio September 4, at the age of fifty-one. After his graduation from the University of Tokio, in 1886, he was appointed in the Ministry of Education in charge of music affairs. Later he was a member of a commission to study Western arts and crafts with regard to possible adoption of the Western style by Japan. The commission recommended that Japan should continue in her own artistic traditions. To conserve these the Government founded a national school, the Bijitsu Gakko, and for eleven years Okakura served as its head. Meanwhile he worked with the Archæological Commission to preserve the temple treasures, the movement being largely due to his initiative, and became director of the allied Imperial Museum of Tokio, Kioto, and Nara. Through the growing popularity of European ideals in Japan, his position as director of the art school became impossible. After a vain attempt to combine the foreign with the native courses, he resigned. With him seceded the greater part of the teachers and many of the students to form a new school, the famous and successful Nippon Bijutsuin. For many years Okakura travelled in China, India, Europe, and America, constantly observant of all the arts. His grave and impressive figure clothed in the rich and sober robes of a Samurai was an occasional and welcome apparition in the artistic circles of New York and Boston, where he won friends and admirers. Though singularly reticent on all matters of merely personal concern, he was a brilliant talker and lecturer, and came to write the English language with force and grace. "Ideals of the East" and "The Book of Tea" are his most read books. For many years he had helped the Boston Museum as an occasional adviser, and it was but a strengthening of this relation when in 1910 he was chosen as curator of Far-Eastern art. He set himself to building up the collections in the field of primitive Chinese painting and sculpture. He was a steadfast advocate of the selective principle of museum exhibition, believing that only the finer objects should be displayed to the public and that exhibits of merely archæological interest should be reserved for students. In the Far-Eastern galleries of the Museum he set an example of beautiful and instructive installation along these selective lines. With fairly Samurai self-control, Okakura combined extraordinary vigor and fervor of the mind, with great dignity and charm of manner. In a true sense he was an exemplar of the finest traditions of his land, a nationalist and yet a cosmopolitan—a choice and potent personality the like of which our times may hardly produce again.

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Finance

THE QUESTION OF RAILWAY RATES

In October the Interstate Commerce Commission will hear the formal application of the Eastern railways for permission to increase their freight rates. Some fifty roads in the territory lying north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi River are concerned in this application, and the magnitude of the interests involved may be gathered from the fact that the annual freight revenues of these roads now aggregate at least a billion dollars. The advance is sought on all classes of freight, commodities as well as classified freight, and a uniform increase of 5 per cent. is desired. It is absolutely within the power of the Commission to grant or refuse the application; moreover, under the existing law, it is incumbent on the carrier desiring to increase a given rate to show that the proposed new rate is "reasonable." Consequently, it devolves upon the Eastern railways to show the "reasonableness" of the 5 per cent. increase. Elaborate preparations are now making, looking to this, and it is fair to assume that the Commission will have before it a great mass of testimony thoroughly covering the essential points at issue.

There is, however, an abiding and fundamental difficulty in this matter of railway rates, escape from which is apparently impossible, unless, by means of additional court decisions on matters of broad principle, the present "twilight zone" be more brightly illuminated than it is now. This "twilight zone" was demarcated some sixteen years ago by the Supreme Court of the United States in the famous Nebraska "maximum rate" case, known to lawyers as "Smyth vs. Ames." The decision was handed down by Judge Harlan and has long been classic. It laid down two sets of criteria as to "reasonableness" of rates, one concerned with and designed to protect the carrier, the other concerned with and designed to protect the shipper. It said briefly that the carrier was entitled to a fair return on the value of the property used in public service, and that the shipper was entitled to be charged no more than the service was reasonably worth. In the case of the carrier, the object was to prevent confiscation, and in the case of the shipper the object was to prevent exploitation. The former established a minimum and the latter a maximum, and between the two was the "twilight zone." Presumably, the "reasonable rate" could be found in given cases somewhere in this zone. The difficulty, however, has been to find it.

The whole trend of thought since this case was decided has been towards elimination of this "twilight zone" by the simple process of recognizing but one set of criteria, and those the criteria affecting the carrier. It is not too much to say that the public mind has proceeded on the basis that the Court, when it said that the carrier was entitled to a fair return on value of property in service, really meant that it was entitled to no more than this. The language of the Interstate Commission in many decisions certainly bears this construction, and it has come to be regarded as a more or less settled principle. In other words, where no confiscation can be shown by the carrier the reasonableness of the rate is considered proven.

Now, the fundamental difficulty above alluded to arises from precisely this thing, viz., elimination of the criteria affecting the shipper. For it can safely be said that the entire structure of rates involved in the present case has grown up under a process of competition governed originally and at all times guided by factors having nothing whatever to do with the carriers' position and having everything to do with that of the shippers. It being simply impossible for a carrier to determine accurately in advance what profit it can make on a given article or commodity carried at a given rate, the rates were made solely with reference to moving the tonnage; that is, were made by consideration of the shipper's capacity and necessities. A railway could determine that *less* than a certain rate would not give it the actual cost of hauling the freight without taking into account overhead charges of all kinds, and it could determine that *more* than a certain rate would not move the tonnage at all. Further than this it could not go; consequently, the rates were made somewhere between these two limits, and competition gradually stereotyped them—in classification territory at least—at a level where they have remained unchanged for twenty-five years. It is these rates which are now to be reviewed in the light of the carriers' necessities. There is no present complaint on the shippers' part as to the existing schedules—no general complaint, that is—and apparently the question will have to be answered solely on the decision whether or not the carriers need more revenues because the present return is not a "fair" return.

Obviously, a scientific solution is impossible under the circumstances, unless it be laid down as a principle that the rule which has governed all rate-making from time immemorial—"that which the traffic can properly bear"—is to be discarded, and unless it further be laid down as a principle that a carrier is to be limited to a fair return on value of property used in public service—in other words, that what Judge Harlan clearly meant as a *minimum* is hereafter to be regarded as the *maximum*. And, if this principle be adopted, there at once arises a practical difficulty, simple enough, but of great importance, which is that private capital cannot possibly be obtained for the public service upon any such conditions, and the next inevitable step is public ownership and operation.

It will be well if, at some stage of this dispute, some one will raise the question as to what Judge Harlan meant in "Smyth vs. Ames" by the phrase "what the service is reasonably worth," and get it before the Interstate Commerce Commission for discussion. For this is really the crux of the whole matter at the present stage. If there be such a thing at all as "reasonable worth of service," there must be criteria of this "worth" which are surely part of the matter now up for investigation and settlement.

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